

**Unpacking Non-profit Brand Heritage: Creating More Satisfied and
Committed Volunteers**

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ABSTRACT

This thesis makes a five-fold contribution to knowledge in the areas of theory, context, method, and management practice. It combines brand heritage, *communitas*, brand image, work engagement, affective commitment and satisfaction with management to develop a new theoretical model showing empirically, the contribution of brand heritage - the history, image, symbols and story an organisation tells about its origins, evolution, and values - and the interplay between these theoretical constructs for the first time. Second, it contributes to context through empirical demonstration of the appropriateness of brand heritage and *communitas* to the non-profit sector. Third, contributing to method, the research applied a mixed methodology, which included the use of a formative (as opposed to reflective) measurement model for brand heritage. It also contributes through conceptualizing for the first time, brand image and volunteer engagement as higher-order measurement models. Finally, contributing to management practice, this thesis outlines to managers the importance of nurturing, and cultivating a strong brand heritage, and ensuring it is leveraged appropriately to retain and attract satisfied, and committed volunteers.

The data was collected in two phases. The first was conducted via questionnaires distributed amongst Scout volunteers to test the newly developed theoretical model, while the second phase enhanced understanding through semi-structured interviews with volunteers, complementing the validated theoretical model. The data demonstrates brand heritage makes a substantial contribution to volunteer management, and can positively impact upon volunteers' experiences, and a volunteer organisation's ability to retain them. Furthermore, the data shows the importance of cultivating non-profit brand heritage and suggests heritage custodianship as an important, but previously unidentified area of non-profit management focus. More broadly, this thesis offers guidance to non-profit managers for retaining volunteers, and vindicates further consideration of the contribution traditionally private sector management practices can have within the non-profit sector.

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to the volunteers who inspired it.

Acknowledgements

Many PhD holders comment on the challenge of the PhD journey highlighting, in particular, the loneliness of a process involving many long days and nights by a computer, accompanied only by one's thoughts, anxieties, and mounting self-doubt. Although my PhD experience has certainly included these elements, it has also contained many highs; finally satisfying reviewer 2, presenting at international conferences, and the satisfaction of helping students develop and grow in fulfilment of my teaching responsibilities. Yet, the most satisfying outcome of this whole process has been the reiteration of the importance of those people who matter most and, indeed, I have no doubt the PhD process could not have been completed without them.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This chapter serves as an introduction to the thesis. First, the rationale for this research is offered, before its aims and objectives are presented. Next, the originality of the thesis is articulated before the design of the research, and the structure of this study is presented. This chapter concludes with a summary of each chapter comprising this study.

1.2 Rationale for this Study

Western society is changing, aging populations (Maestas and Zissimopoulos 2010), youth unemployment (Sloman 2014), and worsening rates of loneliness and clinical depression (Luanaigh and Lawlor 2008) represent just some of the challenges faced. In the UK, these ailments are compounded by declining national budgets for social welfare, the arts, and other charitable causes (Kane and Allen 2011), rendering the utilisation of volunteering resources to combat these prevailing trends of paramount importance to society. Volunteering can aid direct beneficiaries, wider society, and also volunteers themselves, subsequently improving health and well-being (Fraser et al. 2009; Komp et al. 2012), young people's employability (Holdsworth 2010), community spirit (Komp et al. 2012; Putnam 2000), and the fulfilment of service provision vacated by government (Harbert 2012). Although volunteering cannot be a panacea to post-industrial ills, its power should not be underutilised or overlooked. The traditionally under-researched non-profit sector (Chad et al. 2013) could benefit from a deeper understanding of the volunteering process to develop more effective management approaches to enhance volunteer management, and ultimate retention. Given that non-profit organisations have been suggested to possess some of the most powerful brands in the world (Mort et al. 2007), there is a need to understand more deeply the contribution non-profit brands can make.

This research is underpinned by the volunteer process model, which organises the theoretical model into three sections: antecedents, experiences, and consequences of volunteering. At present, the literature around brand heritage is under-developed, and has seen no empirical application in relation to volunteers (Wiedmann et al. 2011a), meaning its capacity to contribute to volunteer experiences is poorly understood, and underutilised by managers and marketers. Brand heritage is identified as an antecedent of volunteering. The experience stage of the volunteer process model features *communitas*, brand image, and volunteer work engagement. *Communitas* has been generally overlooked in relation to volunteers despite the literature suggesting its appropriateness to the non-profit sector

(Di Giovine 2011; McGinnis et al. 2008; Wallace 2006). Furthermore, brand image, a well-researched marketing area in the private-sector, has seen comparatively limited application in non-profit research contexts (Michel and Rieunier 2012). Based on suggestions within the literature it can contribute positively, but in lieu of sufficient research evidence, brand image is incorporated into the theoretical model. Next, volunteer work engagement has been identified in non-profit contexts and found to represent an aspect of volunteering experiences (Cole et al. 2012; Shuck 2011; Vecina et al. 2012). High levels of volunteer work engagement have been linked to an intention to continue volunteering and satisfaction with management. Finally, affective commitment and satisfaction with management were investigated as consequences of volunteering. Both concepts have seen application in the non-profit literature (Sargeant and Lee 2004a; Shantz et al. 2014; Vecina et al. 2012), although little is understood with regard to their antecedents, a gap this research contributes to closing. By identifying and investigating the aforementioned theoretical concepts to develop a new theoretical model, this study builds on previous research and contributes to closing gaps in knowledge relating to the application of marketing theory to the management of volunteers.

1.3 Aim and Objectives

The aim of this research is to develop a new theoretical model of the volunteering process to enhance volunteer management practice.

Specifically, it investigates the influence of brand heritage on *communitas*, brand image, work engagement, affective commitment and satisfaction in relation to volunteer management.

Towards meeting the aims of this project, the following objectives were devised:

1. Underpinned by the volunteer process model, identify antecedents, experiences, and consequences of volunteering.
2. To explore how antecedents of volunteering contribute to volunteer experiences.
3. To expand understanding of how antecedents of volunteering impact on the consequences of volunteering.
4. To deepen understanding of the influence experiences have on volunteering.
5. To evaluate the influence of volunteer experiences upon the consequences of volunteering.

1.5. Originality

This thesis offers a particularly novel contribution to a sector often consigned to the fringes of management and marketing research by developing and testing a new theoretical model exploring the role of brand heritage (a concept only previously considered empirically in relation to the private sector) on the volunteering process. The study contributes to the literature around brand heritage but, also more broadly, to understanding of volunteer management and the influence of marketing on volunteers themselves, ensuring the study benefits theory, as well as practice. By establishing the presence of hypothesised relationships, the new theoretical model advances understanding of its constituent components, their interplay, and practical relevance to managers. Furthermore, this study addresses additional methodological issues arising from the literature, particularly though using a less-common formative measurement model (Hair et al. 2014), but also through validating operationalised measurement tools, and pushing back against questions regarding the integrity of the three-factor structure of work engagement (Vecina et al. 2012).

1.6. Research Design

This research is structured as follows. First, the state of non-profit marketing is introduced before the volunteer process model, and identified components of the theoretical model developed in this study are defined, and the hypotheses presented. Next the sequential mixed method design approach used in the research is explained, along with the pragmatist research philosophy adopted. Specifically, the methodology consists of two elements, first a quantitative, and second a qualitative phase, whereby the smaller qualitative component contributes to enriching the results from the quantitative study with a view to identifying an additional model element (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009). The quantitative phase analysis uses a structural equation modelling approach (more precisely Partial Least Squares (PLS)) (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2010), whereas the qualitative element is carried out in practice through template analysis of the results, the findings of both phases are presented separately. Next, the findings and results of the two methodological phases are discussed together in relation to the literature, and numerous conclusions are subsequently presented. Finally, the research conclusions determine the extent the objectives of the research have been satisfied and identify the relevant implications arising from it. The research design used is illustrated in Figure 1.

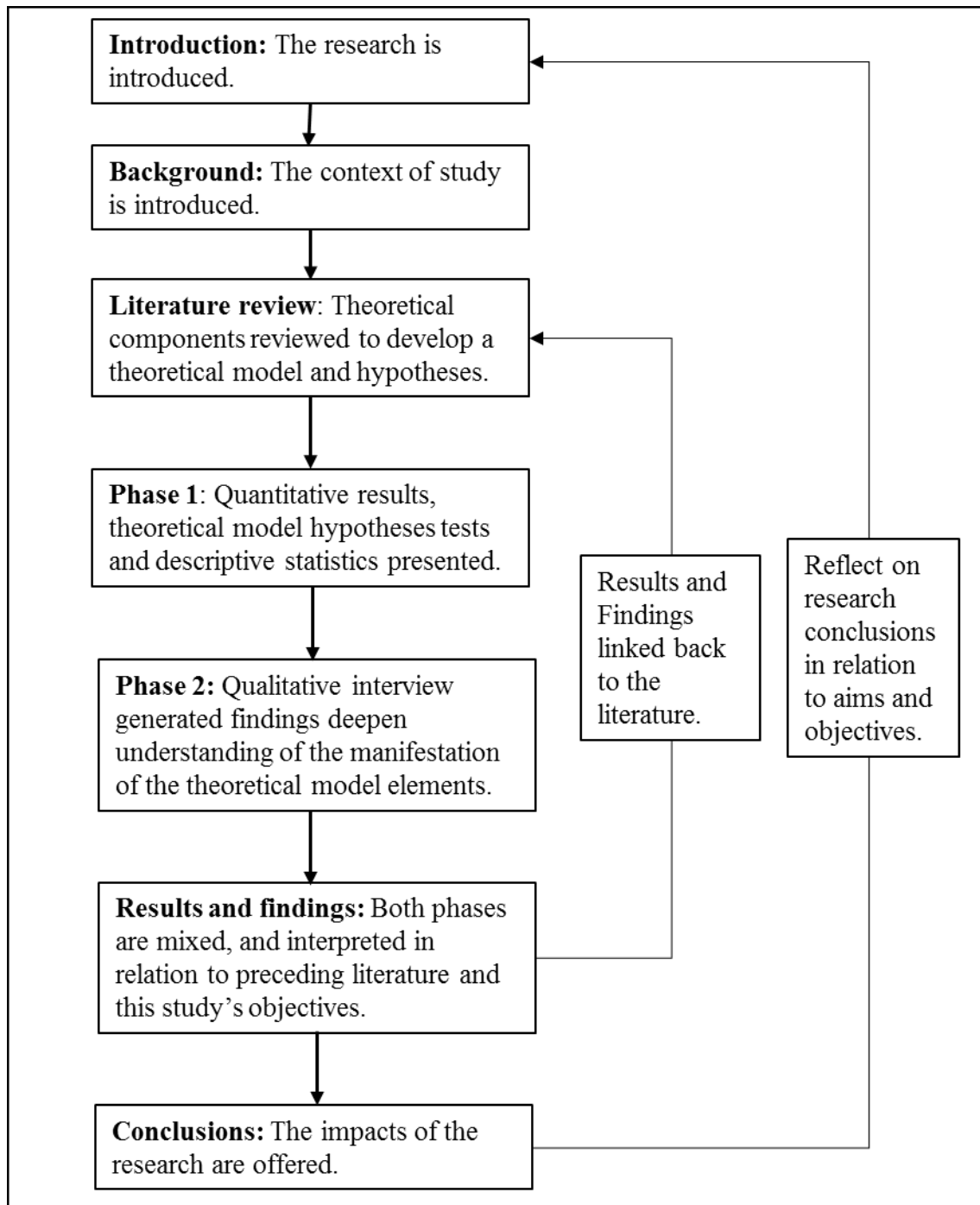


Figure 1: Research Design

1.7. Chapter Overview

Chapter two introduces the context of this study and discusses the non-profit sector, the organisations that comprise it, and the volunteers that populate such organisations. This chapter also reviews developments in non-profit management literature before introducing the Scouts as the principal focus in this study.

Chapter three reviews the theoretical components of the study. After discussing marketing in the non-profit sector, and the volunteer process model, the components of

the theoretical model developed in this research are discussed, i.e., brand heritage, *communitas*, brand image, volunteer work engagement, affective commitment and volunteer satisfaction with management. The chapter concludes by identifying key gaps in the literature and introducing a new theoretical model.

Chapter four introduces the methodology used in this research, and explains the pragmatist philosophical perspective adopted, and the dual phase sequential mixed method design used, namely, quantitative phase I, and qualitative phase II. The strategies for each are offered along with justification and reflection upon the limitations and ethical issues arising.

Chapter five presents the quantitative analysis and results of the study. First, a descriptive analysis of the data is presented, highlighting age, gender, education, and religious characteristics of the sample. Next, the data is explored to determine appropriate analysis approaches that are applied and presented in the following three sections commencing with analysis of the reflective model, then analysis of the formative model component (i.e., brand heritage) and, finally, analysis of the higher-order model. The chapter concludes with a summary of its main findings.

Chapter six presents the qualitative findings of the study, and presents empirical evidence supporting the inclusion of brand heritage, *communitas*, brand image, volunteer work engagement, volunteer satisfaction with management and affective commitment in the theoretical model. The purpose of this chapter is to complement the preceding quantitative phase of the research, and to add an additional richness to the results of this study and remain vigilant to any *a posteriori* themes that may emerge.

Chapter seven draws on the results and findings of both phases of the thesis, and discusses them in relation to the literature, towards meeting the objectives of this study. The chapter concludes with a summary of its main discussion points.

Chapter eight offers the conclusions of this research. The extent to which the research objectives have been met is discussed, before methodological and theoretical contributions are presented. Next, the implications of this thesis in relation to managers in the non-profit sector are presented, before limitations and areas of future research are suggested. The chapter closes with a section of personal reflection on the part of the researcher and an overall conclusion of the chapter.

1.8. Conclusion

This chapter has introduced the thesis, articulated its aim and objectives, highlighted its originality, and summarised the design and structure adopted. The following chapter provides insight into the context of the study.

Chapter 2 Context of the Research

2.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the context and background to this study, tackling definitional issues around the non-profit sector, non-profit organisations, and volunteers, before charting the development of non-profit management and the professionalisation debate. The suitability of the Scouts – as a non-profit volunteer organisation appropriate for this research - is then explained.

2.2 The Non-profit Sector

Non-profit organisations permeate almost every area of society performing a diverse multitude of tasks and striving to meet various perceived societal needs (Kong, 2008; Liebschutz, 1992). The sector's broad reach, and the extent to which it is relied upon by large swathes of society to provide services neglected by the private and public sectors, demands deeper understanding of its workings and management (Laverie and McDonald, 2007). Despite statistics suggesting that around 40% of adults volunteer annually in the UK (Harker, 2011), there remains a remarkable paucity of literature pertaining specifically to the voluntary sector when compared to its private and public counterparts (Frumkin, 2005).

Although volunteering is a global phenomenon, the associated motivations, experiences, and outcomes are affected, to some extent, by the context in which they occur (Ruiter and de Graaf 2006; Thompson et al. 2017). Furthermore, the non-profit sector varies as a result of the political, social, and economic context in which it is positioned; including available volunteer skill sets, and the financial landscape in which they operate (Harbert 2012; Musick and Wilson 2008). Consequently, this study focuses on the UK context but incorporates, where appropriate, theoretical understanding developed elsewhere.

Since the financial crisis of 2008, the non-profit sector in the UK has managed reductions in revenue streams (Maclean et al., 2013; NCVO, 2013), while striving to satisfy a growing demand for its services (Hurrell et al., 2011; The Charity Commission, 2010). Recent UK government policy has striven to increase the role of the voluntary sector, with the aim to mitigate the impact of public sector cuts and to improve efficiency in service delivery (Hurrell et al., 2011; Scottish Government, 2012). Consequently, the voluntary sector is under unprecedented financial, political and social pressures. This process has been termed 'nonprofitisation' by some researchers, and is suggested to be occurring within the UK, but also as part of a more global trend (Salamon, 2015).

Despite this, financially, the voluntary sector adds a gross value to the UK economy of £11.7 billion, this figure increases to £23.1 billion when including the estimated value of volunteer hours (NCVO, 2012). As of 2012 the industry had net assets worth over £90 billion and a paid workforce of 765,000 (NCVO, 2012) in the UK, with affiliated paid staff accounting for around 5% of the Scottish workforce. Although the third sector's wider, social benefits to society are unquantifiable (in part due to unrecorded informal volunteering) they are, no doubt, vast (Harker, 2011).

The sector operates on a local, regional, national and global level (Hurrell et al., 2011), and represents a significant part of the economic system (Laverie and McDonald, 2007). Furthermore, the non-profit sector is noted to be an important element of democracy through its ability to represent marginal members of society, counterbalance the power of the state through diluting social and economic dependence on the public sector, and promoting locally accountable governance practises (Caliguire and James, 1996).

Scholars remain engaged in debate regarding the terminology best representative of the non-profit sector (Mendel 2010; Salamon 2002; Seligman, 1992). These efforts are complicated by the multiplicity of terms pertaining to the non-profit sector, which vary greatly in emphasis and include: non-profit, third sector, charitable sector and the Commons (Frumkin, 2005; Sargeant, 1999b).

Various terms are often used interchangeably amongst researchers and practitioners in reference to vastly differing organisations and contributing to a degree of confusion regarding its precise meaning (Salamon and Anheier, 1997), perhaps attributable to influences emerging from changing political and social landscapes. Table 1 illustrates the evolution of voluntary sector terminology.

Table 1: Terminological Debate

Adapted from Frumkin (2005)

Term	Origin	Description	Critique
Civil Society	Classical political theory from the 16th Century.	Everything outwith the state; church, charity and private businesses.	Vague and too broadly defined.
The Charitable Sector	Originated in the Victorian era.	Widely used in western countries, and delineates the 'for good' aspect of the sector clearly.	Offensive to some practitioners and beneficiaries. 'Charitable' can imply funding is generated from private sources which is inaccurate.
Tax-Exempt	1913 within US income tax legislation.	Organisations established for charitable and non-profit purposes (educational, sporting and research).	Only included tax registered organisations and failed to include the many less formal organisations.
Non-governmental	Emerged in the 1970s as a more inclusive alternative to tax-exemption.	Includes domestic and international organisations and is in wide usage. Used frequently in reference to rural, and health-oriented operations.	Very broad and ambiguous, the term suggests it could include anything that is 'not government' allowing more business-oriented organisations to adopt it.
Independent Sector	Emerged in the 1980s with the establishment of a trade organisation of the same name.	Emphasises the ability for the sector to implement solutions uninfluenced by market forces and politics.	The sector is not independent due to reliance on government funding programmes and increasing cross sector partnerships.
Third Sector	Academic origin, circa 1990s.	Both large, formal organisations and grass-roots informal groups.	Practitioners' description of 'third in line'. Suggests they are isolated and inferior.
The Commons	Originated in the 1990s as an alternative to previous terms.	Where relationships between communities, benefactors, intermediaries take place.	Over-complicated and unpopular, especially amongst practitioners. Rarely used.
The Voluntary Sector	Wide use over several decades in the West.	Includes formal to grassroots volunteer organisations and groups.	Not representative of the professionalisation of volunteers and evokes connotations of amateurism.
Non-proprietary Organisations	Increasing use through the 1990s as an alternative definitional term.	Highlights the ownerless, non-profit characteristics of the sector.	Negates surplus generating organisations within the sector and excludes government agencies.
Non-profit Sector	1950s-1960s the most popular term used today.	Emphasises benevolence of the sector rather than the tax status. Conveys trustworthiness.	Considered inaccurate when referring to organisations with commercial revenues and high executive salaries.
Non-profit and voluntary sector	Emerged post 'Non-profit sector' as a more accurate description.	Incorporates main actors (volunteers) within a sector emphasising their importance.	While accurate, this term is cumbersome and, as such, is not as widely used within the research and practise as 'non-profit sector'.

Compounding the confusion espoused in Table 1, authors note the geographic variations within the terminological debate. In France the term ‘social economy’ is in widespread use, whereas in Africa, the ‘non-governmental organisation’ is more commonplace; likewise, there is a lack of consensus, within pertinent literature, between the UK and USA (Courtney, 2002; Musick and Wilson, 2008).

The diversity and variation of constituent organisations contribute to the argument that one coherent sector, in reality, is a chimeric notion, and its false fabrication to be counterproductive to research (Hall 1992; Kendall and Knapp, 2005; Mendel, 2010). Clark (1991, p. 40), adding credence to such notions, argues that the sector “does not comprise a tight community but a broad spectrum – too broad, perhaps, to leave the term with much meaning.” To counteract this problem, Salaman and Anheier (1996) attempt to cluster the non-profit sector into 12 fields of activity: Culture, Education, Health, Social Services, Environment, Development, Philanthropy, International, Religious, Business and Professional, Unions, and Other; however, this approach has been narrowly used, thus its usefulness has thus far been limited (Musick and Wilson, 2008). Despite this, there is a general consensus that in the area where both government and free markets are absent, what is commonly referred to as the non-profit sector is present (Frumkin, 2005), offering a loose definition of the sector in which this study is based.

As increasing numbers of academics focus research on the non-profit sector, the importance of effectively defining the sector will increase if research findings are to be generalised. Having established a working definition and appreciation of the diversity of the non-profit sector, the next section attempts to arrive at a suitable definition of the voluntary organisations that populate it.

2.3 Defining Non-profit and Voluntary Organisations

The earliest definitions relating to the voluntary sector stem from early charity law. While charities, today, represent only a proportion of the voluntary action undertaken in the UK, they were the principal vessel of voluntary action in the 16th century (Sargeant, 1999b). The Roman Catholic Church began developing legislation pertaining to gift-giving for good causes from the 16th century (Jones, 1969). Further legislation was later developed in the Statute of Elizabeth (Statute of Charitable Uses, 1601) which legislated to include secular activities identifying care for the elderly, impoverished and sick, as well as the maintenance of public infrastructure and the provision of education as being legitimate charitable practises. Definitions continued to evolve within case law; for example, the seminal Commissioners for Special Purposes of Income Tax ruling versus

Pemsel (*Commissioners for Special Purposes of Income Tax v Pemsel*, 1891), described charitable organisations as concerned with four areas: education provision, religious activities, poverty relief, and any other acts of benefit to the community; causes which many voluntary organisations work towards today. More contemporary attempts to define charitable activities have remained broad. For example, a report by the Nathan Committee (1952) notes the voluntary sector to be:

“...not directed or controlled by the state and that in the main it is financed by private, in contradistinction to public, funds. It embodies the sense of responsibility of private persons towards the welfare of their fellows; it is the meeting by private enterprise of a public need.” (p.12)

The Nathan Committee report also notes that due to diversity within the voluntary sector, no single definition can adequately denote its activities, an assertion still applicable with a high degree of accuracy today. Furthermore, upon analysis of the principal funding streams to the voluntary sector, the UK Government accounts for almost one third on a sector level, and can support charities on an individual basis with over seventy per cent of their funding (Sargeant, 1999b). Such high levels of state funding for the voluntary sector stimulate concern regarding links to stealth government influence, thus leaving the public with less democratic control over public service provision (Brenton, 1985; Kendall and Knapp, 1993; Wolch, 1990). This situation would be in conflict with the description of non-profit sector organisations offered by the Nathan Committee (1952). Other, brief attempts have been made to define voluntary organisations, however, both the government regulators and voluntary organisations themselves are reluctant to subscribe to a tight, rigid, limiting definition, describing its flexibility as “...its greatest strength...” (Home Department, 1989, p. 6).

More recently an increased emphasis on the demonstrable public benefit offered by charitable organisations has become required by the regulators (Charity Scotland, 2001; NCVO, 2001). Today, charitable status in Scotland is determined by the extent to which an organisation is deemed to be: non-political, independent, not-for-profit, and beneficial to the public (Charity Scotland, 2001).

Some of the most widely used definitions of the non-profit sector are influenced either by their inputs, outputs or upon their distribution of surplus revenue (Hansmann, 1986; Morris, 2000; Steinberg and Gray, 1993). Input-focused definitions determine a voluntary organisation based upon its supply of labour or its supply of finance (Morris, 2000). Morris (2000) identifies two problems associated with this approach. First, a

focus upon the labour source of voluntary organisations which fails to ascribe sufficient value to the contribution of paid staff within these organisations and, secondly, a difficulty when distinguishing formal organisations from informal, micro level volunteering activities. Similar ambiguity arises in focusing on financial inputs where definitions often fail to encompass revenue from sales activities and government sources (Morris, 2000).

Output-focused definitions determine voluntary organisations based upon the public benefit gained through a voluntary organisations activity (Morris, 2000). However, this approach has been criticised for its inability to reflect differences between host countries and its propensity to alter over time (Morris, 2000); additionally, it struggles to include organisations that primarily target a member, rather than public population (Lohmann, 1992; Morris, 2000).

Hansmann (1986) proposes defining non-profit sector organisations from the perspective of distribution of financial revenue, namely, the principle of non-distribution constraint. This definitional perspective has formed the basis of much voluntary organisation research and stipulates that those in control of an organisation must not receive the net-earnings of that organisation (Morris, 2000; Steinberg and Gray, 1993). The subjectivity of the term ‘net-earnings’ coupled with Hansmann’s (1986) assertion that organisations are justified in paying a “reasonable compensation to any person for labour or capital that he provides, whether or not that person exercises some control over the organization” (p.58-59) generates ambiguities. Morris (2000) notes how the word ‘reasonable’ renders the definition open to interpretation, thus, none of the definitional approaches discussed have yielded a rigorous definition; however, when considered from a structural-operational perspective, a less ambiguous characteristic, based on definition of non-profit sector organisations, is presented.

The Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project (JHCNSP) encompasses the largest research project involving the non-profit and voluntary sector, now spanning over 45 countries in all regions of the world (2014). The centre aims to empirically assess the non-profit sector, explain its data, and disseminate its results through research (CCSS 2014). To conduct this project, one of the most widely used definitions of voluntary organisations was developed (Morris, 2000). Voluntary organisations subject to the comparative non-profit research project are, therefore, required to meet requirements in five areas: organisation, independence, profit distribution, governance practise and the inclusion of voluntary activities (Salamon and Anheier, 1992). Table 2 describes the five

characteristics required by the structural-operational definition framework to qualify as a voluntary organisation.

Table 2: Structural-Operational Definitions

Adapted from Salamon and Anheier (1997)

Organisation Characteristics	Description
<i>Organised</i>	Voluntary organisations must be formally organised to some degree, ruling out informal, spontaneous acts of voluntarism and kindness from this definition.
<i>Private</i>	Voluntary organisations must be separate institutions from government, while a majority of funding may stem from government sources, the organisation must retain institutional separation.
<i>Non-profit Distributing</i>	Voluntary organisations must not retain profits accrued through their activities for distribution to owners or directors but reinvest them into fulfilling the organisation's aims.
<i>Self-governing</i>	Voluntary organisations must be self-governing and maintain an independent decision-making apparatus.
<i>Voluntary</i>	Voluntary organisations must include voluntary participation at some level in their operations or management.

Thus, reflecting on Table 2, a voluntary organisation could be defined as one which displays, to some extent, these five characteristics of formal organisation, private operations, non-profit distribution, self-governance, and voluntary activity. While the structural-operational definition has been widely used in research, it is not universal in its applicability and is, somewhat, context-specific. Furthermore, the extent to which an organisation can be funded by government and continue to describe itself as private, remains ambiguous (Kendall and Knapp, 1993). Despite this, the structural-operational definition represents one of the most comprehensive definitions and will, therefore, be deployed in this research.

Within the definitional debate, Frumpkin (2005) suggests three distinct elements within the non-profit sector, including public-serving, member-serving, and voluntary associations. Public serving non-profit sector organisations include groups with myriad aims and objectives such as children's charities and health campaigning organisations. Member-serving organisations conduct their work principally amongst members, and include churches, veterans groups and youth organisations such as the Scouts. Frumkin

(2005) describes voluntary associations as the grassroots within the voluntary sector; however, his description is based on government classification for tax purposes, and ignores prevailing arguments within the literature.

Voluntary associations are noted as distinctive from voluntary organisations (Harris, 1998; Thompson, 1976; Pearce, 1993), despite various authors using the terms interchangeably (Wollebaek, 2009; Pearce, 1993; Perrow, 1970). Thompson (1976) makes a distinction between the two terms describing voluntary associations as groups of people, governed by a constitution, who pursue an agreed-upon interest. They have no other apparatus or tools than themselves and a constitution (Harris, 1998; Pearce, 1993; Thompson, 1976). A voluntary organisation, however, is argued to be a tool through which an association may achieve its goals; voluntary organisations, therefore, may be created by the association to help meet its aims (Thompson, 1976). These voluntary organisations share many of the same organisational features found in other sectors, with added complexity regarding roles and responsibilities when association members take on tasks within the organisation (Pearce, 1993; Thompson, 1976). Indeed, voluntary associations have been referred to as the authentic roots of the voluntary sector (Billis, 1993; Harris, 1998). For the purposes of this research - investigating the role of volunteers' brand heritage notions - voluntary organisations will be the focus of study, as it is the organisations - not the associations - that recruit, manage and deploy volunteers.

2.4 Defining Volunteers

The notion of volunteering has a long history (Christiansen-Ruffman, 1990; Cnaan et al., 1996; Gaston and Alexander, 2001). The term 'volunteer' was widely used to describe the military-mobilised during periods of national emergency, these volunteers received no remuneration and enlisted upon their own free will (Cnaan et al., 1996). Volunteers make up a vital element of the cultural workforce and are an essential resource for voluntary organisations (Holmes, 2003; Stamer et al., 2008). The volunteer literature describes how volunteering can be both formal, within voluntary organisations and informal, where it may include simple acts of kindness towards a neighbour. Furthermore, voluntary activity is becoming more prevalent within private sector organisations' corporate social responsibility programmes, further complicating classification and definitions associated with volunteers.

Corporate volunteering programmes are increasing in popularity within the private sector, and now represent one of the fastest growing types of voluntary activity (Bussell and Forbes, 2008; Geroy et al., 2000), becoming central to many private sector organisations'

corporate social responsibility plans (Grant, 2012). Corporate volunteering describes organisations formally sponsoring employees to undertake voluntary activities with partner voluntary organisations through funding and the allocation of company time (Grant, 2012). Thus, employees are paid to undertake voluntary activity. Regardless of the motives, or the extent of free-will corporate volunteering involves, non-profit organisations and government are keen to encourage its uptake (Grant, 2012). Furthermore, corporate-supported volunteering offers two principal benefits to voluntary organisations, particularly a reduction in costs associated with recruiting volunteers individually, and the opportunity to retain volunteers who would not otherwise have undertaken voluntary activity entirely of their own volition (Grant, 2012). Nevertheless, evidence suggests that a significant number of corporate supported volunteers are unable to be retained (Grant, 2012; Penner, 2002) and, currently, hardly any research has investigated the retention of volunteers in corporate programmes (Grant, 2012). As a result, the extent to which it is comparable with conventional voluntary organisation-based volunteering is unclear. As corporate volunteering programmes tend to offer volunteer opportunities at particular partner organisations, the influence of non-profit marketing is limited; furthermore, corporate volunteering motivations have been suggested to be distinct from those associated with conventional volunteering (Harbert, 2012). Consequently, this thesis will focus on the Scouts and regard corporate volunteering as a phenomenon distinct from conventional forms of voluntary activity.

The volunteer community is particularly opaque (McCurley and Vesuvio, 1985), indeed, the term ‘volunteer’ can refer to a broad range of actions denoting unpaid service and, despite widespread deployment, the term ‘volunteer’ is poorly defined (Chambré 1993; Cnaan et al. 1996; Handy et al., 2000). The debate is further complicated by the widespread use of the term ‘volunteer’ by scholars and members of the public in diffuse contexts, (Carson 1999). Cnaan et al. (1996) argue that volunteering should not include all freely made unsalaried choices by an individual; however, Tremper et al (1994, p. 2) define the volunteer as “...anyone ordinarily thought of as a volunteer”, thus providing a much broader, all-encompassing definition. Such informal volunteering, as described by Tremper et al. (1994), illustrates ambiguity surrounding arriving at a universally accepted definition of volunteering, and supports Lukka and Ellis’ (2001) argument that one’s personal understanding of volunteering and volunteers is determined upon that individual’s perspective as either a volunteer, a voluntary sector worker, or a member of the public with no significant voluntary sector connections.

Another strand of the definitional debate literature concludes that public perceptions of a volunteer are positively linked to the personal net cost he or she incurs in order to undertake a voluntary activity, where net cost is defined as the benefits of volunteering minus the costs incurred to the volunteer (Cnaan et al., 1996; Handy et al., 2000). Therefore, a volunteer perceived to incur a higher net cost than another undertaking the same activity is deemed to be more of a volunteer by the public (Handy et al., 2000). Furthermore, volunteers' motivations have been suggested to impact perceptions of the purity of their volunteering (Musick and Wilson, 2008). It has been suggested that altruistic motivations, in the minds of the public, constitute an element of the volunteer definition and are viewed by voluntary organisations as indicative of a volunteer's predicted performance (Martin, 1994; Musick and Wilson, 2008). Table 3 illustrates the diversity within the definitional debate.

Table 3: Perspectives of Volunteer Definitions

Definitions of Volunteering		Source	
Perspective	Scholarly	"...an individual engaging in behaviour that is not bio-socially determined (e.g., eating, sleeping), nor economically necessitated (e.g., paid work, housework, home repair), nor socio-politically compelled (e.g., paying one's taxes, clothing oneself before appearing in public), but rather that is essentially (primarily) motivated by the expectation of psychic benefits of some kind as a result of activities that have a market value greater than any remuneration received for such activities."	(Smith 1981 p. 22-23)
		"To volunteer is to choose to act in recognition of a need, with an attitude of social responsibility and without concern for monetary profit, going beyond one's basic obligations."	(Ellis and Noyes 1990 p. 4)
	Practitioner	"...anyone ordinarily thought of as a volunteer."	(Tremper et al. 1994 p. 2)
		"Any activity which involves spending time, unpaid, doing something which aims to benefit someone (individuals or groups) other than or in addition to close relatives, or to benefit the environment."	(Smith et al., 1998, p.14)
	Governmental	"The giving of time and energy through a third party, which can bring measurable benefits to the volunteer, individual beneficiaries, groups and organisations, communities, environment and society at large. It is a choice undertaken of one's own free will, and is not motivated primarily for financial gain or for a wage or salary."	(Scottish Government, 2012)
"A volunteer is a person who carries out activities benefitting society, by free will. These activities are undertaken for a nonprofit cause, benefitting the personal development of the volunteer, who commits their time and energy for the general good, without financial reward."		(EuropeanYouthForum, 2012, p.7)	

As Table 3 highlights, there is a disconnect between practitioner, government and scholarly held views on volunteer definitions, which contributes to the complexity of producing useful research, effecting change within the sector, and producing public policy conducive to its enhancement.

Like the public and private sector, there is great diversity in the roles conducted amongst voluntary organisations, a diversity that a universally accepted definition of volunteers would detract from (Handy et al., 2000). In an attempt to allow for greater generalisability amongst volunteer research Cnaan et al (1996) developed four characteristics of volunteering which highlight the multifaceted nature of the phenomenon. These are illustrated in Table 4.

Table 4: The Four Dimensions of Volunteering

Adapted from Cnaan, Handy et al., 1996.

Dimension	Categories
<i>Free Choice</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Free will (the ability to voluntarily choose) 2. Relatively un-coerced 3. Obligation to volunteer
<i>Remuneration</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. None at all 2. None expected 3. Expenses reimbursed 4. Stipend/low pay
<i>Structure</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Formal 2. Informal
<i>Intended Beneficiaries</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Benefit/help others/strangers 2. Benefit/help friends or relatives 3. Benefit oneself (as well)

Table 4 further demonstrates the range of volunteering activities, as well as the most significant principles associated. Despite such advances, however, definitional issues remain unresolved and ‘volunteer’ remains a problematic term (Lukka and Ellis, 2001).

For the purposes of this research, where the data collection will be conducted in Scotland, the Scottish Government’s definition of volunteering will be used. The Scottish government is a significant funder of non-profit organisations in Scotland, and governs the legislative framework in which they operate. This definition encompasses the most

significant themes to arise from the voluntary literature while remaining flexible to some degree. Thus, a volunteer is defined as a person who undertakes the following activity:

“The giving of time and energy through a third party, which can bring measurable benefits to the volunteer, individual beneficiaries, groups and organisations, communities, environment and society at large. It is a choice undertaken of one's own free will, and is not motivated primarily for financial gain or for a wage or salary” (Scottish Government, 2012).

This operational definition incorporates the principles of free choice, non-remuneration, the use of formal organisational structures and measurable benefits to the target groups and will be used, in this study, to denote Scout leaders.

2.5 Volunteer Management

Used interchangeably with terms such as ‘volunteer coordination’ and ‘volunteer administration’, volunteer management can be described as the process of recruiting, motivating, and maintaining volunteer involvement with an organisation, as well as decisions regarding structure, governance and engagement with private sector markets (Alexander, 2000; Chetkovich and Frumkin, 2003; Kong, 2008; Shoham et al., 2006). An emotive issue, some scholars and practitioners averse to the notion of management, argue for a more volunteer-based perspective, positing terms such as ‘volunteer empowerment’ (Harbert, 2012), nevertheless a growing realisation that “...volunteers are not angelic humanitarians in any sense...some do very positive things for general welfare: others are harmful, and selfish in the extreme” (Smith, 1981, p. 33) has catalysed an increase in the adoption of management and market mechanisms within the non-profit sector from the private sector (Shoham et al., 2006), with mixed success (Foster and Bradach, 2005).

2.5.1 Development of non-profit and voluntary sector management

As voluntary organisations have grown and developed from local community-run groups to national bodies, they have become more exposed to the competitive environment and associated external shocks, resulting in the voluntary sector adopting management strategies from the for-profit sector (Gaskin, 2003; Paull, 2002; Smith, 1996), in some cases to the detriment of the non-profit organisation (Alexander, 2000; Chetkovich and Frumkin, 2003; Kong, 2008). The incorporation of conventional management systems is a contentious issue, evoking strong emotions amongst voluntary sector stakeholders (Courtney, 2002; Harbert, 2012; Meijs, 1996). Voluntary organisations’ activities are viewed as necessary to society, rather than subject to economic and competitive environmental conditions; as a result, their management is distinct from that of the private

and public sectors (Myers and Sacks, 2003; Shoham et al., 2006). However, prevailing political philosophies of successive governments, a trend towards tighter public spending controls, and increasing demands on the voluntary sector to provide services traditionally delivered by the state have stimulated increasing professionalisation and a growing interest in volunteer management (Dart, 2004; Hurrell et al., 2011; Kreutzer and Jäger, 2011; Parry et al., 2005; Ridder and McCandless, 2010; Wilson and Larson, 2002). Despite this increased volunteer dependency, evidence suggests high levels of volunteer turnover and a consistent decline in sustained volunteer activity (Brudney and Gazley, 2006; Brudney and Meijs, 2009), thus suggesting present-day volunteer management requires additional research to increase its effectiveness.

The managerialism debate is not confined to academia, within industry too, there is fierce divergence regarding volunteer management practises (Ainsworth, 2012; Kreutzer and Jäger, 2011). Scouting UK's operations director Stephen Peck notes:

“We've all come across volunteers who are blockers. You get rid of them and lots of other people immediately offer to help. Those people are like a cancer in your organisation” (Ainsworth, 2012).

Peck's description of volunteers as a 'cancer', highlights the difficulties in controlling a voluntary workforce which often views itself from the perspective where “Because I am a volunteer and doing something gratis for others, I am doing something good in itself, and anything I do in this role must be good” (Selby, 1978, p. 95). Peck advocates the use of length of tenure contracts, one example of private sector management adoption. Clutterbuck and Dearlove (1996, p. 224-225) capture the concerns of many in the non-profit sector:

“There has been a pervasive worry that management would be a Trojan horse, infiltrating alien systems and practices, undermining the perceived autonomy, cherished values, core identities and distinctive working methods of individual organisations and the sector as a whole... Moreover, suspicions of management have been compounded by a fear that devoting more energy to organisational processes would be a distraction from the 'real' business of working with clients and communities.”

Emphasis on the value of volunteers in the sector is not universally shared, and volunteers are often likened to the unprofessional amateur, for whom regarding critical service delivery, the public have little faith, increased adoption of management practices could help alter that image (Ganesh and McAllum, 2012). Such a move is likely to find public

support, as the population has become accustomed to such practises in the professional workplace (Shoham et al., 2006). Highlighting the extent of the debate, Table 5 illustrates some principle arguments against and in favour of the adoption of management practises from the private sector.

Table 5: The Managerial Debate

Arguments Against Private Sector Adoption	Source	Arguments Favouring Private Sector Adoption	Source
Erosion of distinctiveness and image of both the sector and its traditional values.	(Bush, 1992; Courtney, 2002; Jeavons, 1992; Kreutzer and Jäger, 2011; Leat, 1995; McCandless, 2010; Ridder and Moore, 2000)	Performance enhancement through new concepts and tools, ultimately fulfilling core mission more effectively.	(Frumkin and Andre-Clark, 2000; Gwin, 1990; Ridder and McCandless, 2010; Shoham et al., 2006; Tucker and Parker, 2013)
Fundamental disconnect between core values and private sector approaches.	(Cunningham, 2001; Eikenberry and Kluver, 2004; Gonzalez et al., 2002; McCandless, 2010; Ridder and Moore, 2000)	Enhanced legal protection for volunteers and beneficiaries and helps satisfy legal requirements effectively.	(Harbert, 2012; Myers and Sacks, 2003)
Encourages competition against for-profit and other non-profit actors, often damaging non-profits.	(Bush, 1992; Frumkin and Andre-Clark, 2000)	Increased status of the sector attracting a higher calibre of volunteer and staff.	(Frumkin and Andre-Clark, 2000; Ganesh and McAllum, 2012; Leat 1993)
Contributes to increasingly high management salaries that attract people without the valuable ‘non-profit ethic’, such people are often lured to more lucrative private sector jobs soon after.	(Frumkin and Andre-Clark, 2000; Le Roux and Feeney, 2013; Suarez, 2010)	Increases confidence amongst funders.	(Clohesy, 2003; Frumkin and Andre-Clark, 2000; Ridder and McCandless, 2010; Shoham et al., 2006)
Consumes valuable resources to deliver management training.	(Alexander and Weiner, 1998; Leat, 1995)	A market-based orientation can be essential for an organisation’s survival and success.	(Shoham et al., 2006; Vázquez et al., 2002)

Table 5 shows there to be merit to both arguments regarding increasing managerialism within the non-profit sector. As discussed in section 2.3 the non-profit sector is diverse and includes a multitude of very different organisations. Such diversity in scope and operation therefore demands diversity in the extent of management adoption. Gaston and Alexander’s (2001) investigation into the management of Police Special Constable

volunteers considers a potentially dangerous public-serving context, whereas it is likely that management within a member-only community fundraising organisation, would be less formal. Despite this, adopting management practises can allow non-profit sector organisations to fulfil their mission, safe from legal and ethical repercussions (Harbert, 2012; Myers and Sacks, 2003). Equally important is the continuation of the ‘spirit’ of volunteering and ensuring the volunteer-organisation relationship remains mutually beneficial. As discussed in Chapter 2, people volunteer in order to satisfy certain desires. Professionalisation and management should be careful to harness, not constrain, the unique energy and talents volunteers offer. Ultimately, the increasing professionalisation of the non-profit sector requires a delicate balance to be struck; it should not be prioritised for its own sake, but should only be enacted when there are benefits to be gained for both the organisation, the volunteers who enable it, and the intended beneficiaries.

2.6 The Scouts

Inspired by events during the Boer War (1899-1902), Robert Baden-Powell, a British Army officer, established the first Scout camp in 1907 with the aim of instilling qualities of self-discipline, improvement, resourcefulness and altruism amongst its cohort of young boys (Mills, 2011). The creation of a Scout Promise and Scout Law acted as a benchmark for the organisation’s members, encouraging patriotism, physical and mental fitness, loyalty, honesty, community service and knowledge of the outdoors (Mills, 2011). Dissemination of Scout values, methods and activities through the fortnightly publication ‘Scouting for Boys’ from 1908 contributed to the movement’s unprecedented domestic and global expansion (Baden-Powell, 2004). Today, the Scout movement is active in 216 countries, with over 31 million members (Scout Association, 2014), undertaking a plethora of activities as diverse as disaster relief in the third world, to running camping weekends developing outdoor survival skills (see Figure 2) (Scout Association, 2006). Scouting UK, the oldest established Scouting organisation, benefits over 400,000 members every year (Scout Association, 2014), and delivers the Scout experience primarily through its volunteers. The Scouts provides extensive and comprehensive training to volunteers striving to ensure that “...adults get as much from Scouts as young people” and offer opportunities at all levels, from local section leadership to trusteeship (Scout Association, 2014).



Figure 2: A Typical Scout Camp

Academic focus towards the Scout movement has followed a disparate path, focusing on gender, race and religious issues (Mills, 2011; Parsons, 2004; Watt, 1999), imperialist, militarist and moral facets (Dedman, 1993; Mills, 2011; Rosenthal, 1986), and more recently volunteer satisfaction and their motivations (Johnston et al., 1999; Vantilborgh et al., 2012; Willems and Walk, 2013; Willems et al., 2012). Of the studies with a volunteering focus, Willems et al. (2012) share some theoretical and methodological underpinnings with this research.

Table 2 illustrates the five characteristics of a voluntary organisation as organised, private, non-profit distributing, self-governing and including voluntary participation (Salamon and Anheier, 1992; Salamon and Anheier, 1997) criteria met by the Scouts. The typical Scout volunteer, too, is shown to meet the criteria for the volunteering definition offered in section 2.4. Furthermore, the scale of the organisation and a requirement to manage and coordinate its volunteers render it an appropriate lens through which to further investigate the role of brand heritage upon the wider volunteering phenomenon.

2.7 Conclusions

Chapter 2 has charted the development of the non-profit sector, considered non-profit sector organisations, and the volunteering phenomenon, towards arriving at suitable working definitions. The non-profit sector is noted to be a complex and often confused concept and is defined in this study as the area where free markets and government are absent. Voluntary organisations, for this study are identified as those meeting the criteria

in the five areas of organisation, independence, profit distribution, governance practises and the inclusion of voluntary activities as described in section 2.3. Finally, the primary subjects of this study, the volunteers, are defined as individuals who partake in the following activities:

“The giving of time and energy through a third party, which can bring measurable benefits to the volunteer, individual beneficiaries, groups and organisations, communities, environment and society at large. It is a choice undertaken of one's own free will, and is not motivated primarily for financial gain or for a wage or salary” (Scottish Government 2012).

Sections 2.5, and 2.5.1 both note the complex management backdrop for which this study is set, drawing attention to the diversity of the sector and the lack of research towards managing volunteers, ultimately arguing for more research and noting that the application of management practises to the non-profit sector, while controversial, is undoubtedly justifiable. Furthermore, an example of a voluntary organisation operating within the non-profit sector in the UK, the Scouts has been shown to be a suitable contextual lens through which to investigate the impact of brand heritage and brand image upon the volunteering process. Having established an appropriate context for the study, Chapter 3 offers a critical review of pertinent theoretical literature and presents justifications for their use.

Chapter 3 Literature Review

3.1 Overview

Chapter 3 draws together strands of marketing and volunteer management theory to offer an innovative and original insight into the impact of brand heritage within the non-profit sector, and its influence on *communitas*, brand image, volunteer work engagement, affective commitment and satisfaction with management. Consequently, a review of the application of marketing theory within the non-profit sector will be given before the volunteer process model, which underpins this research, is introduced. The chapter then offers a literature review of the theoretical concepts that comprise the theoretical model developed and tested in this research. These are organised around the antecedents (brand heritage), experiences (*communitas*, brand image, volunteer work engagement), and volunteering outcomes (affective commitment and satisfaction with management) stages outlined in the volunteering process model. The rationale behind their inclusion is also offered but, principally, these concepts were judged to be poorly understood, yet suggested to be highly relevant to the non-profit sector. Finally, based on evidence from the literature, a new theoretical model of volunteering is presented which highlights the role of brand heritage in influencing the volunteering process.

3.2 Marketing in the Non-profit Sector

Growing competitiveness stimulated by a combination of funding cuts and an increasingly crowded environment (Hankinson 2000) have necessitated greater professionalisation and adoption of private-sector management practises in the non-profit sector (Dolnicar and Lazarevski 2009; Kotler and Andreasen 1996; Liu et al. 2013, Sargeant et al. 2002). This process has occurred in tandem with appropriation of private sector marketing techniques within the non-profit sector as organisations seek to differentiate themselves from others and harness benefits akin to those experienced by private sector organisations (Dolnicar and Lazarevski 2009). The prevalence and innate strength of non-profit sector brands - amongst the most powerful in the world (Laidler-Kylander et al. 2004) - sees them fulfil valuable social, rather than solely economic roles, rendering the relatively limited research addressing this area surprising. Building on a comparatively limited literature, understanding of non-profit sector marketing is increasing (Ho and O'Donohoe 2014). Early research attempts by Kotler (1979) developing understanding of marketing in the non-profit sector enjoyed limited successes, and built on earlier studies such as Mindak and Bybee's (1971) investigation demonstrating a successful increase in donations could be attributed to adopting private

sector marketing theories. The relative restraint of research in this area is suggested by Octon (1983) to be attributable to unoriginal transfer of private sector techniques to the non-profit sector in a repetitive fashion, negating a focus on broadening of understanding and rendering earlier proclamations hailing the coming of age of non-profit marketing premature (Lovelock and Weinberg 1978).

Early research clustered around marketing towards increased financial donation (Blockner et al. 1984; Dawson 1988; Yavas et al. 1993), blood and organ donation (Allen and Maddox 1990; Horton 1991), application of private sector marketing practises (Mindak and Bybee 1971) and, tentatively, demographics and factors affecting voluntary behaviour (Broadbridge and Horne 1994). More recently, research has focused on establishing the state of a range of marketing issues within the non-profit sector, the importance of branding and the influence of marketing practises on volunteer recruitment and retention (Ho and O'Donohoe 2014; Napoli 2006). Kylander and Stone (2012) recognise a recent shift from the original marketing paradigm where marketers focused upon external communications, to a new developing paradigm where branding and marketing is given greater attention, and seen as core to focusing support, adding capacity, and emphasising the social missions of the non-profit sector organisation. Table 6 highlights areas of focus derived from a sample of marketing oriented non-profit literature.

Marketing Themes	Source	Summary
Income Generation and fundraising	(Bennett and Sargeant 2005; Bronn and Vrioni 2001; MacMillan et al. 2005; Merchant et al. 2011; Michel and Rieunier 2012; Sargeant 1999a; Sargeant 1999b; Sargeant 2001; Tapp 1996, Venable et al. 2005, Webb et al. 2000).	Research focus between segmenting donors, effectiveness of communication techniques upon donors and various attempts to model donor behaviour. Further research has investigated the fundraising best practise and the lifetime value of donors.
Volunteer Recruitment and retention	(Bennett and Sargeant 2005; Garner and Garner 2010; Omoto and Snyder 1995; Randle and Dolnicar 2011; Wymer et al. 1997; Yavas and Riecken 1985).	Self-congruity's influence over recruitment offers insight into the link between one's self-perception and a brand. Marketing practises (external and internal branding) shown to exert significant influence over volunteer recruitment and retention.
Intercultural Marketing Analysis	(Bulla and Starr-Glass 2006; Octon 1983; Dolnicar and Lazarevski 2009).	Disagreement in adoption of marketing techniques; research notes the need for bespoke approaches while contemporary research argues adoption of marketing techniques is being undertaken regardless.
Market Orientations and symbolic consumption perspectives	(Bennett and Sargeant 2005; Boenigk and Schuchardt 2014; Chen and Hsu 2013; Dolnicar and Lazarevski 2009; García et al. 2013; Ho and O'Donohoe 2014; Horne and Laing 2002; Mulyanegara 2010; Sargeant et al. 2002; Wymer Jr and Samu 2002).	Links to branding functions of marketing, is growing in the non-profit sector, however critics argue against the use of a private sector concept within the non-profit sector. Volunteering as symbolic consumption has also yielded insights into the application of marketing orientations.
Image, branding and Reputation	(Bennett and Sargeant 2005; Hankinson 2004; Hankinson and Rochester 2005; Lee 2013; Liu et al. 2013; Miller and Merrilees 2013; Mulyanegara 2010; Napoli 2006; Sargeant et al. 2008; Saxton 1995; Stride 2006; Stride and Lee 2007; Tapp 1996).	Image, branding and reputation are shown to hold high value to non-profit sector organisations. Branding has much crossover and versatility, aiding in recruitment and retention of volunteers and fundraising efforts by organisations. Staff support for rebranding is essential and should be ambitious and not piecemeal in nature.

Table 6: Marketing in a Non-profit Sector Context

Table 6 shows that the application of marketing theory and techniques to the non-profit sector has generally resulted in beneficial outcomes, manifesting as increasingly effective fundraising activities, more efficient recruitment and retention of volunteers, improved understanding of intercultural operating environments, and deeper appreciation of the value a market orientation can hold for non-profit sector organisations. Research investigating marketing theory's application towards fundraising holds obvious importance to organisations that provide subsidised or free of charge services to beneficiaries (Bennett and Sargeant 2005).

Researchers note the imbalance between the market for the organisations' services and the resources available, rendering fundraising within non-profit sector organisations of paramount importance (Bennett and Sargeant 2005). Consequently, fundraising has been the subject of a rich stream of research focusing on both individuals (Sargeant 1999a) and corporate sponsors (Bronn and Vrioni 2001). The application of private sector marketing theory to the non-profit sector is also evidenced through research (MacMillan et al. 2005; Merchant and Rose 2013; Michel and Rieunier 2012). The use of relationship marketing is shown to have a positive effect on fostering trust between non-profit sector organisations and funders, however the limited sample used in the research raises doubts over the generalisability of the research findings (MacMillan et al. 2005). Merchant et al. (2011) empirically investigate the role nostalgia plays in instigating charitable donations, arguing that the evocation of nostalgic connections between potential donors and non-profit sector organisations increases commitment and likelihood of donation. More recently, investigation by Michel and Rieunier (2012) of brand image and typicality have demonstrated how ensuring non-profit sector brands remain centrally positioned, or typically positioned within the sector affecting the likelihood of donation, successfully applying private sector marketing theory to the non-profit sector.

Recruitment and retention of volunteers has benefitted from the application of marketing principles to enhance understanding and practise towards more beneficial results (Bennett and Sargeant 2005). Although the management and sector specific domains benefit from a more widespread analysis, especially in relation to motivations and factors affecting the continuance of volunteer action (Vecina et al. 2012), the marketing literature does offer insights into effective strategies for communicating with potential volunteers (Bennett and Kottasz 2001), utilising branding towards recruitment and volunteer retention (Hankinson 2004), and segmenting volunteers to optimise efficiency in recruitment operations.

Research investigating the cultural influence exerted over non-profit sector marketing has been more subdued; however, earlier suggestions that cultural differences necessitate bespoke development of marketing theory (Opton 1983) are in part supported by Bulla and Starr-Glass (2006). However, these are challenged by a more recent investigation finding little difference in marketing approaches between non-profit sector organisations across cultural boundaries (Dolnicar and Lazarevski 2009), thus raising doubts over previous assertions regarding cultural impacts upon the non-profit sector.

The marketing orientations of non-profit sector organisations overlap considerably with specific marketing functions such as branding, but necessitate exclusive consideration (Bennett and Sargeant 2005). There is widespread support within the literature that non-profit sector organisations are becoming increasingly marketing oriented (Horne and Laing 2002). Despite this, and upon empirical investigation Dolnicar and Lazarevski (2009) highlight that only one in five marketing staff in non-profit sector organisations were adequately trained in marketing, and that non-profit sector organisations were all too rarely marketing oriented. Efforts strengthening research in this area have resulted in the development of a marketing framework to assess the marketing functions of non-profit sector organisations, thus consolidating practitioner and researcher based findings arguing that non-profit sector organisations' success is determined by the extent to which they are marketing-oriented (García et al. 2013). Tentatively, consumer culture theory views volunteering as a form of consumption, and through this lens investigates the volunteering process, while Wymer Jr and Samu (2002) yield insights into gender differences towards volunteering and Ho and O'Donohoe (2014) investigate volunteer stereotypes justifying the need for trained marketing staff in non-profit sector organisations.

Of particular significance to this study is the extent to which issues of image, branding and reputation have been investigated with growing enthusiasm within the non-profit sector literature (Bennett and Sargeant 2005). Branding is described as being of salient importance to non-profit sector organisations and integral to attracting support from both donors, businesses, and volunteers (Hankinson 2004, Liu et al. 2013; Napoli 2006,) Authors note branding to benefit both recruitment and retention of volunteers and staff (Hankinson and Rochester 2005; Liu et al. 2013), as well as donations (Venable et al. 2005), while Hankinson and Rochester (2005) note that branding can positively encourage the act of volunteering within the general population through national volunteering organisations. Despite such support, four main areas of contention held by

non-profit sector marketing sceptics have been identified (Kylander and Stone 2012). Firstly, there remains an aversion to using private sector terminology and methods in the non-profit sector. Further, some sceptics posit the non-profit sector adoption of marketing plans serves as a distraction from formulating strategic plans to which it is more traditionally accustomed. Third, sceptics consider non-profit sector marketing adoption as indicative of an out of touch, legacy oriented leadership embarking upon vanity branding projects. Finally, there is concern amongst many non-profit sector organisation members that marketing and brandings activity is more easily implemented by wealthier, larger organisations, to the consequent detriment of other non-profit sector organisations. This implication has been likened to bullying where larger brands overshadow smaller ones, fostering resentment in the non-profit sector community towards marketing and branding (Kylander and Stone 2012).

Stride (2006), while acknowledging the increasing prevalence of branding operations within the non-profit sector, cautions against allowing non-profit sector organisational values to be dictated by their brands, emphasising the importance of organisational values in the non-profit sector as representing the very essence of such organisations. This is supported by Kylander and Stone (2012) who emphasise that organisations should align values, mission and internal identity, as well as external image to establish maximum brand strength. Stride's (2006) concern that appropriation of private sector marketing strategies detracts from non-profit sector organisations, finds little support from a majority of other authors, who seldom suggest negative implications of branding practises (Liu et al. 2013, Sargeant et al. 2008). In particular, Napoli (2006) finds that the most successful non-profit sector organisations tend to be more brand-oriented. Branding practises are noted to be particularly complex in the non-profit sector, especially where rebranding is concerned due to added complexity surrounding stakeholder management (Lee 2013).

Facilitating investigation of branding in the non-profit sector have been attempts to produce measurement instruments, notably Ewing and Napoli's (2005) brand orientation scale, although the scale omits any brand heritage elements, it has underpinned further research such as Liu et al.'s (2013) empirical investigation of internal brand management, in part an attempt to address identified knowledge gaps in the literature. While research has shown the connection between brand orientation and non-profit sector organisational performance (Hankinson 2004; Napoli 2006), there has been scant investigation of the constituent elements of this relationship (Liu et al. 2013). Liu et al (2013) find empirical

evidence for a positive relationship between brand orientation and the extent to which staff are attached to the non-profit sector organisations' brand. In this study, investigation of the role of brand heritage allows for a deepening of understanding in this area; however, unlike Liu et al (2013), who investigated non-profit sector staff, this study will focus solely on volunteers. A second knowledge gap identified within the literature is a paucity of research investigating internal non-profit sector branding (Liu et al. 2013). Liu et al (2013) note the relationship between internal branding, leadership, emotional brand attachment and organisational performance enhancement, however, as this study investigates branding's effects exclusively on people's volunteering experiences, and outcomes of volunteering, the value of internal branding is questioned.

Reflecting upon the application of marketing theory to the non-profit sector (see Table 6), a general acceptance can be inferred that private sector concepts and approaches are not only useful, but critical to non-profit sector organisations operating in a more crowded environment and under increasing budgetary strain. Thus far, research has produced useful insights, yet the volume of marketing non-profit sector literature remains low, especially where empirical research is concerned. Cognisant of this, and in the absence of any empirical consideration of brand heritage within a non-profit sector context, brand heritage will be considered. To mitigate the barriers to volunteer research this study draws on a vast body of literature and applies broadly used, contextually appropriate definitions to volunteer practises and the non-profit sector as outlined in Chapter 2. Furthermore, this research draws on theory from multiple disciplines, and combines them originally, meeting the requirements for theoretically justifiable volunteer research (Hustinx et al. 2010).

The next section presents the volunteer process model, which this study utilises to underpin the subsequently developed theoretical model.

3.3 The Volunteer Process Model

The research conducted and presented as part of this thesis is underpinned by the Volunteer Process Model (VPM). The VPM was conceptualised and presented by Omoto and Snyder (1990) to help structure research on AIDS epidemic volunteers, and has since been used to inform and structure empirical volunteer research investigation (Hyde et al. 2016; Omoto et al. 2010; Snyder and Omoto 1992), as well as comprehensive reviews of volunteering literature (Wilson 2012). The VPM organises relevant theoretical concepts into three distinct, yet connected stages of the volunteering phenomenon: antecedents, experiences, and consequences as illustrated in Figure 3.

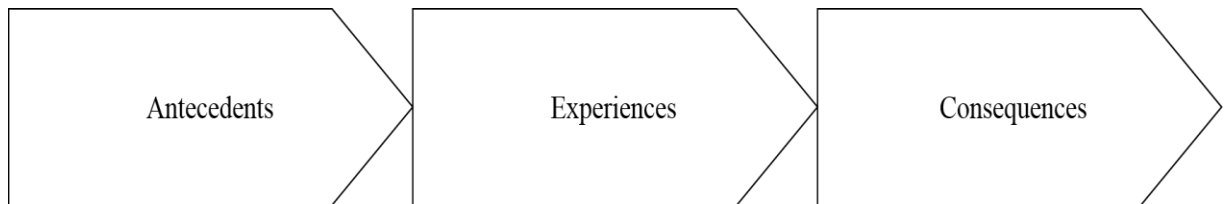


Figure 3: Volunteer Process Model Stages

As Figure 3 shows, the antecedent, experience and consequence stages of the VPM are sequential in principle, but have been shown to exhibit direct effects upon one another (Hyde et al. 2016; Omoto and Snyder 2002) (i.e., antecedents upon consequences).

The VPM promotes investigation of volunteering on multiple levels of analysis, for example, from the perspective of the individual volunteer, a network of individuals, volunteer host organisation and, finally, on a broader societal level. Despite these capabilities, most prior empirical application of the VPM limits itself to the individual volunteer level, a convention to which this research adheres (i.e. the theoretical model presented is conceptualised and empirically investigated from the perspective of individual volunteers) (Hyde et al. 2016; Omoto and Snyder 2002; Omoto et al. 2010).

Omoto and Snyder (2002 p. 848-849) note how the VPM “...is not so much a theory of volunteerism as a broad framework for organizing our work and that of others on volunteerism, and for helping identify conceptual issues for future study”. A similar stance is taken in this research, where the VPM is used to underpin and organise the theoretical model presented at the conclusion of the literature review in Figure 4. The constituent stages of the VPM are now discussed in more detail.

The antecedent stage of the VPM is suggested in prior VPM research to include motivational, personality, and demographic variables that contribute to volunteers’ decisions to engage in volunteering experiences (Hyde et al. 2016; Omoto and Snyder 2002; Snyder and Omoto 1992). Antecedent variables can, therefore, contribute to predicting aspects of subsequent experience and outcome stages of the VPM. Previous research has included consideration of variables such as social norms, motives, and psychological perceptions as antecedent stage components (Hyde et al. 2016; Omoto and Snyder 2002; Omoto et al. 2010), however, none have investigated the role of brand heritage in relation to volunteers. Consequently, this study suggests brand heritage to be an antecedent stage concept that may influence volunteer experiences, and subsequent outcomes.

The experience stage of the VPM is typically home to aspects of volunteering that can contribute to, or hinder the perception of volunteering experiences (Hyde et al. 2016; Omoto et al. 2010). The experience stage of the VPM is particularly appropriate for

considering the development of inter-volunteer and staff relationships, as well as the relationships between volunteers and the beneficiaries of their work that contribute to overall levels of volunteer satisfaction and the likelihood to continue volunteering (Omoto and Snyder 1990; Omoto and Snyder 2002). Previous studies have considered theoretical concepts including satisfaction with experiences, coping processes and stigma at the experience stage of the VPM (Hyde et al. 2016; Omoto and Snyder 1990; Omoto and Snyder 2002). This research develops understanding of volunteer experiences by investigating the interaction and roles performed by *communitas*, brand image, and volunteer work engagement.

Finally, the consequences stage of the VPM is concerned with the effect of the preceding VPM stages (antecedents and outcomes) upon the attitudes held towards their volunteering, as well as subsequent behavioural decisions (Hyde et al. 2016; Omoto and Snyder 1990). Previous application of the VPM has included consideration of intentions to continue volunteer activity, psychological state, personal satisfaction, and personal development as outcome stage theoretical concepts that have been shown to be influenced by the preceding elements of the VPM (Hyde et al. 2016; Omoto and Snyder 1990; Omoto and Snyder 2002; Omoto et al. 2010). This research builds on prior understanding, considering volunteer satisfaction with management, and affective commitment as concepts positioned in the outcome stage of the VPM. Consequence stage concepts, and other theoretical concepts included in this study are discussed later in this chapter.

Ultimately, the VPM is deemed useful as a way of underpinning investigation of brand heritage with regard to NPOs and the other elements of the theoretical model developed in this research. In particular, the sequential nature of the VPM aids the development and testing of a new model of brand heritage, while the models' receptiveness to "...many, if not most, forms of volunteerism" (Omoto et al. 2010 p. 849) renders it appropriate for integration into this investigation.

3.4 Antecedents Stage

Underpinned by the volunteer process model, the antecedent stage of the volunteer process model includes brand heritage. Consequently, the following section within the antecedent stage now discusses the development, and meaning of the brand heritage concept applied in this study.

3.5 Brand Heritage

3.5.1 *Evolution of branding*

Evidence of branding activity can be traced at least to the middle-ages, where brands were used as an effective method of differentiating craftsmen's output (De Chernatony et al. 2011; Stride 2006). Advances in technology and an increasingly competitive environment have catalysed the need for organisations to add value to their products, ensuring brands are not simply marks of material quality, but also mediums of ideas, values (Gardner and Levy 1955), and even personalities (Aaker 1997), which have evolved into the complex marketing systems that utilise dynamic brand mediums today (Conejo and Wooliscroft 2015). Arriving at an holistic, widely applicable definition of brands is important, as overlapping or redundant concepts are often counterproductive (De-Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley 1998; Singh 1991). A widely used definition of brands is that proffered by The American Marketing Association (1960), defining them as:

“...a name, term, sign, symbol or design, or a combination of them, intended to identify the goods or services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors.”

However, more recently this definition has been criticised on grounds of inflexibility (De-Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley 1998) and its product-focused orientation (De-Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley 1998; Crainer 1995; Wood 2000). Despite these criticisms, the AMA definition has been used widely in branding research (Aaker 2009; Watkins 1986). Bennett proffers a more contemporary version of the AMA definition whereby the brand also encompasses “...any other feature...” (Bennett 1988 p. 18), to be used to differentiate from competition; a realisation, perhaps, of the broader reach and dynamic roles brands play in today's organisations and allowing for elements of image and brand personality to also be considered in research (De-Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley 1998). Despite this, most attempts to define the brand emanate from either an holistic perspective or a product-plus perspective (Wood 2000). The holistic approach to defining brands holds that through the marketing mix (the promotional measures used to promote a brand (Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick 2012)), the brand is carefully constructed for a specific target group, and projects a unified and carefully managed, coordinated message (Wood 2000). Alternatively, a product-plus perspective views branding as an addition to a product, where the brand serves as a marker to consumers and would be a late addition rather than a formative element of a product (Wood 2000). Debate amongst

researchers contests the extent to which brands fall into the holistic and product-plus categories. Proponents of the product-plus perspective contest that a brand simply constitutes added-value, through differentiating it from a commodity (De Chernatony et al. 2011; Wood 2000). Use of the term 'added-value' arouses a degree of confusion through its breadth of meaning within distinct, but related academic vernacular (Wood 2000). The discipline of Accounting for example, relates added-value to the difference between the income and expenditure an organisation accrues (Lucey 2000; Wood 1996; 2000). Wood (1996) posits an alternative perspective where added-value is a resulting benefit from added-value agents such as branding. Increasingly, added value agents are becoming less tangible, more subjective, and less product focused, thus marketers are drawing on added-value agents such as brand personality to enhance brand identity and, consequently, sales (Wood 2000). Much of the development of our understanding of the notion of the 'brand', echo's earlier calls suggesting that the consumer is far from passive in the marketing process, but instead should be considered as an active participator in brand construction and conveyance (Meadows 1983).

Brands offer a multitude of benefits to organisations at the customer-market, product-market, and financial-market levels (Keller 2002; Keller and Lehmann 2006). Thus, serving as delineation of the organisations' primary offerings, brands also influence consumers' purchase decisions, propagate trust, reduce perceived risk, and guarantee quality levels. Furthermore, they reflect the entire experiential process afforded to customers (Keller and Lehmann 2006). At the product-market level, brands influence, and often galvanise effectiveness in marketing campaigns through mediums such as advertising, and on a financial-market level can represent a valuable asset (Keller and Lehmann 2006). While branding has traditionally focused on external stakeholders (Aurand et al., 2005) there is a growing realisation that brands exert considerable influence internally and also affect employees within an organisation (Kylander and Stone 2012; Schlager et al. 2011).

Communication through branding occurs on six levels of meaning to the consumer: attributes, benefits, values, culture, personality, and user (Sargeant 1999b). The attribute level denotes the use of the brand as a vehicle, espousing the core message of an organisation to the consumer, communicated, for example, through (Liu et al. 2013) brand logos and names. Benefits afforded by brands manifest as functional or emotional. Functional and emotional benefits are the positive effects received by consumers in return for their support and purchase. For example, wearing a particular branded garment can

elicit good feeling in the wearer through them achieving public association with a particular brand and its values. On a values level, an organisation can communicate information on the way in which it operates, and its core beliefs, ultimately, projecting the core beliefs of the stakeholders. The culture level is closely aligned with values; however, it can also project information about parent company beliefs and the way in which the organisation operates. Brands can also convey meaning on a personality level. Brand personality can develop either from the personality of a prominent founder or through an organic process where the organisation's operations and culture form a unique personality over time (Aaker 1997). Finally, brands convey meaning to the consumer on a user level. The nature of an expected, or indeed desired, user can be influenced by an organisation; fostering high levels of usage in social subgroups can help reinforce the overall brand, and allow an organisation to target specific groups more effectively (Sargeant 1999b).

Perceived customer value – a context dependent multidimensional concept (Holbrook 1999; Parasuraman 1997; Wiedmann et al. 2011a) – should be maximised to enhance consumers' expectations that benefits outweigh costs when purchasing a product or service (Zeithaml 1988). To this end, well utilised brands can positively affect consumer perceptions of enhanced value compared to competitors (Fill 2002; Wuestefeld et al. 2012), while also enhancing the quality of service provided by employees (Punjaisri and Wilson 2007). Perceived customer value draws on a fertile area of research (Holbrook 1999; Park et al. 1986; Sheth et al. 1991; Smith and Colgate 2007; Ulaga 2003; Woodall 2003; Wuestefeld et al. 2012) and can be synthesised to include four main value elements: economic, functional, social and affective (Wuestefeld et al. 2012).

Economic elements of customer value relate to financial costs such as price, discounts, and operating costs. Smith and Colgate (2007) note how consumers act to mitigate costs in a similar way to organisations; such costs are not exclusively economic, however, and can also include psychological costs of consumption, personal investments such as the energy and effort exerted in the consumption process, and perceived risk associated with the purchasing process. Functional dimensions of customer value are concerned with the extent to which consumer expectations of a product or service are met (Wuestefeld et al. 2012), in particular, the accuracy and functionality of the purchase, the utility of its performance, and outcomes of purchasing a product or service (Smith and Colgate 2007). Social aspects of customer value pertain to the personal perspective held by customers towards the brand, in relation to their self-concepts and identities (Hirschman and

Holbrook 1982; Wuestefeld et al. 2012). Through attributing psychological meaning, consumers also appropriate aspects of brands symbolic meaning and personality to themselves (Holt 1995; Wuestefeld et al. 2012). Furthermore, image, prestige and heritage associated with brands can act as strong signifiers of positive customer value, for example, luxury goods consumption vigorously stimulates the social values function (Vigneron and Johnson 1999; 2004; Wuestefeld et al. 2012). Affective aspects of perceived customer value are the emotional and experiential connection established between consumer a brand (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982; Sheth et al. 1991; Wuestefeld et al. 2012) and can manifest themselves through appealing emotional states, aesthetics and derived sensory pleasure (Vigneron and Johnson 2004; Wuestefeld et al. 2012). Maximising perceived customer value is critical in an ever more competitive environment, where forging a relevant link with the consumer results in competitive advantage.

Ultimately, brands with higher levels of saliency, differentiation, intensity, and those evoking higher trust than their competitors are more likely to be successful, thus intensifying the promised benefits of brand heritage (Hakala et al. 2011). Furthermore, consumer experiences and interactions with organisations can affect their receptiveness (Davis 2010; Hakala et al. 2011). A primary determinant of brand preference lies in the emotional connection between the consumer and the brand (Ballantyne et al. 2006), such connections are nurtured not only through tangible, but increasingly the intangible elements of the brand (Hakala et al. 2011; Kapferer 2012). Cognisant of this, enhanced customer perceived value has a positive influence on brand heritage, and brand image, offering avenues for increased differentiation and competitive advantage, justifying further investigation (Wiedmann et al. 2011a; Wuestefeld et al. 2012). Brand heritage constitutes a promising avenue towards brand differentiation, able to foster unique brand associations that are distinct from competition (Hakala et al. 2011; Keller and Lehmann 2006). Section 3.5.2 will now consider the emerging developments in understanding with regard to the brand heritage phenomenon.

3.5.2 Brand heritage evolution and operationalisation

Brand heritage constitutes an area of growing interest to marketers conscious that brand identity and subsequent consumer appeal are influenced by the heritage associated with an organisation (Hudson 2011). The notion of brands having heritage elements has developed gradually with similar, but distinct themes emerging in studies of historical influences on marketing in the automobile industry (Hudson 2011; Simms and Trott

2006). Although the possession of heritage alone does not constitute success (Urde et al. 2007), organisations imbued with heritage are endeared with a powerful asset that can potentially contribute to organisational affluence for generations (Balmer 2013).

More recently, research has seen an emergent twin track develop within the literature concerning heritage and organisations. Initial focus centred on the corporate heritage concept, stemming from investigation of monarchies as corporate brands. This track has seen steady development and a now broader (although still limited) application to corporations in the private sector (Balmer 2011b; Burghausen and Balmer 2014; Urde et al. 2007). A second stream of research in this field is concerned with the notion of brand heritage, which like its corporate heritage counterpart investigates heritage and corporate brands, while additionally incorporating analysis at the product brand level where emphasis is given to understanding consumer interpretations (Burghausen and Balmer 2014; Hakala et al. 2011; Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Although this research is principally concerned with the latter brand heritage notion, considerable overlap between the former and a relative lack of research investigating both concepts justifies the incorporation of literature from these dual research streams.

Etymologically, heritage is related to inheritance, which suggests the passing of ideas, values, or objects from one generation to another, encouraging the transfer of historical values (Hakala et al. 2011; Nuryanti 1996). While typically associated with historical sites and the built environment (Balmer 2013), heritage is now being investigated from a broader perspective, which also considers the concept in the form of a living, adaptable trait in corporations as well as the traditional static heritage associated with the antiquated endeavours of the past (Balmer 2013); thus, heritage is now considered to consist of tangible as well as intangible elements existing together (McDonald 2011). Central to the usefulness of heritage, is the public perception of it and its role in conveying beliefs and shared cultural experiences (McDonald 2011). While heritage is concerned with historical values or objects, concern and regard for heritage is a comparatively recent phenomenon thus emphasising the contemporary facet held by heritage, and demonstrating how the concept is transformable, malleable and open to reinterpretation (Balmer 2011b; 2013). From a consumers' perspective, the notion of heritage can evoke images of continuity, safety and familiarity amongst consumers, often serving as a reassuring bulwark to the difficulties of reality (Hakala et al. 2011).

Heritage brands are not simply brands associated with antiquated organisations, but rather brands actively extolling values and positioning themselves in relation to their heritage

(Balmer 2013). Brand heritage is suggested by Banerjee (2008) to consist of an organisation's history, image, expectancy and equity. Where history pertains to events in an organisation's past and image reflects the legacy of an organisation's brand communication strategy. Expectancy, as suggested by Banerjee (2008), includes the physical and psychological benefits a consumer anticipates to derive from a brand. Finally, equity includes the organisation's competencies that can be utilised towards establishing and maintaining competitive advantage; however, excepting an organisation's history, image, expectancy and equity are noted to be difficult to measure (Hakala et al. 2011).

An alternative description of brand heritage is offered by Urde et al (2007, p. 4) who define brand heritage as:

“...symbols and particularly the organizational belief that its history is important, a dimension of a brand's identity found in its track record, longevity, core values, use.”

Thus, brand heritage is suggested to constitute an amalgam of the five elements of track record, longevity, core values, history and symbols (Urde et al. 2007; Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Track record refers to evidence that an organisation is achieving its aims and meeting its values over a long period of time, for example, the human rights campaign group Amnesty International possess a track record of integrity and justice, while longevity refers to maintained activities within alternative heritage manifestations, it can be particularly pertinent to NPOs organised and characterised by successive generations of family involvement. Core values are central to a brand's identity where they can develop and establish an organisation's heritage over time, acting as a pledge to consumers and central to an organisation's brand identity (Lencioni 2002; Urde 1994; Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Telephone support charity The Samaritans could be considered to have strong core values, with its principal commitment to confidentiality and a willingness to discuss any topic with callers. Urde et al (2007) also identify history as a heritage element, which influences identity fostering relevance to the present as well as future consumers. History can help organisations establish who and what they are, contributing to the clarity and consistency of their marketing messages over time (Brown et al. 2003; Wiedmann et al. 2011a). For example, child protection charity Barnardo's has a history of 150 years of service. While history is widely noted as a building block of brand heritage, it is not a necessary prerequisite to establishing brand heritage (Balmer 2013; Urde et al. 2007). Indeed, Balmer (2013) notes that brands can foster heritage

through appropriation or transfer of heritage from one organisation to another through close affiliation or takeover, offering the purchase of British car manufacturer brands by overseas companies for use on vehicles manufactured for the Far East market as one example of this (Balmer 2013). While heritage is an important driver for brand heritage marketing, it is not fundamental. Marketers can enhance, foster and even create brand heritage where none exists (Beverland et al. 2008; Holak et al. 2007; Merchant and Rose 2013), offering a reinterpretation of the brand's heritage appropriate for modern times (Aaker 2004). Finally, the use of symbols represents the medium conveying the brand and portraying its values and beliefs on behalf of an organisation (Hakala et al. 2011), for example, the World Wildlife Fund's iconic panda logo (Wiedmann et al., 2011a). Having heritage can offer four main benefits to organisations in increasingly competitive environments (Hudson 2011; Urde et al. 2007; Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Table 7 illustrates some benefits of heritage possession to organisations.

Table 7: Benefits Accrued Through Heritage Possession

Benefit	Description	Source
Can generate competitive advantage	Heritage can provide an avenue of differentiation and distinctive positioning for an organisation that is difficult for competitors to imitate, thus, perhaps allowing higher prices/retaining/attracting heritage sensitive consumers.	Merchant and Rose 2013, al. , Wuestefeld et al. 2012, Hakala et al. 2011, Urde et al. 2007, Wiedmann et al. 2011a, Wiedmann et al. 2011b
Strengthens the customer consumer relationship	Heritage can increase the value of a brand through lending it authenticity and provenance.	Merchant and Rose 2013, Wiedmann et al. 2011a, Wuestefeld et al. 2012, Hakala et al. 2011, Urde et al. 2007, Muehling et al. 2004
Strengthens stakeholder relationships	Heritage helps build strong relationships with non-customer stakeholders, ensuring continuing support for the organisation during difficult times.	Balmer 2013, Wuestefeld et al. 2012, Wiedmann et al. 2011a, Urde et al. 2007, Aaker 2000
Strengthens recruitment	Heritage may support recruitment and retaining employees through fostering high levels of internal commitment.	Aaker 2004, Balmer 2013, Urde et al. 2007

Table 7 provides evidence of the benefits associated with heritage for organisations, adding credence to Balmer's (2013p. 291) assertion that heritage is indeed an "ambient asset". Its ability to generate competitive advantage, strengthen recruitment, and enhance stakeholder and customer-consumer relationships in particular, hold strong relevance to the non-profit sector. Given, for example, the increasing competitiveness of the non-profit sector (Garland and Darcy 2009; King 2016), thus rendering the prospect of enhanced competitive advantage beneficial to an organisation's survival, and enabling them to successfully fulfil their missions.

Additionally, strengthening recruitment is also of particular importance to non-profit organisations, as it allows them to recruit more competent and motivated volunteers, but also to retain volunteers for longer (Sargeant 1999a). The common misconception of volunteers as free resources is outdated, the recruitment, training, and retention of good volunteers requires appropriate levels of investment from host organisations (Harbert, 2012). Thus, strengthening recruitment, as described in Table 7, could contribute to a more efficient use of resources. Enhancing stakeholder relationships could also be of particular interest to non-profit organisations who rely on a broad network of stakeholder relationships for support (Balser and McCluskey 2005; Sargeant 1999a). Furthermore, enhancing stakeholder and customer and consumer relationships also holds relevance to non-profit sector organisations, for which consumers and customers can be considered as beneficiaries.

The brand heritage concept has met some criticism. Malleability and concern pertaining to, and within, the constituent elements of brand heritage have facilitated ambiguity around the concept. This is evidenced through Hakala et al.'s (2011) criticism of overlap between Urde et al.'s (2007) description of history, track record and core values, thus positing alternative and arguably more distinctly delineated elements of continuity and longevity (Hakala et al. 2011). Furthermore, the comparatively recent emergence of a quantitative measurement tool to evaluate brand heritage has, perhaps, contributed to a paucity of research (Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Additionally, issues around culturally distinct interpretations of the brand heritage concept are highlighted through intercultural brand heritage research conducted by Hakala et al. (2011). Finally, brand heritage is positioned within a crowded field of marketing research, aggravating criticism that the concept overlaps to its detriment with other theoretical ideas. Table 8 shows related concepts to brand heritage, highlighting areas of similarity and their relationships to brand heritage.

Table 8: Comparable Theoretical Concepts to Brand Heritage

Adapted from: Balmer 2013; Wiedmann et al. 2011a

Comparable Concept	Definitions/Theme	Relationship to Brand Heritage
Retro Branding	Pertains to re-launched brands from the past towards promoting an idealised yet often inaccurate image of an historical era (Balmer 2013; Brown et al. 2003).	Both concepts include an element of retrospectivism; however, unlike retro branding which focuses on particular periods brand heritage is also influenced by subsequent and current events (Urde et al. 2007).
Nostalgic Branding	Concerned with positive yearnings towards the past, nostalgic brands offer comfort and security resurrecting memories of former times the consumer may wish to return to (Balmer 2013; Davis 1979; Wiedmann et al. 2011a).	Nostalgic branding is retrospective like brand heritage; however, it is anchored in the past whereas brand heritage holds promise for the future derived from all experiences accrued by an individual. Furthermore, brand heritage is more all-encompassing than the more narrowly focused nostalgic branding (Loveland et al. 2010; Wiedmann et al. 2011a).
Brand Revival	Similar to Retro branding where the product tends to be updated to cater for contemporary tastes (Brown et al. 2003; Wiedmann et al. 2011a).	Like brand heritage, brand revival also stimulates consumer memories of their past and aligns them to the current day. However, unlike brand revival, brand heritage does not seek to renew a brand, merely to convey its heritage optimally (Balmer 2013; Wiedmann et al. 2011a).
History Marketing	Within business history, history marketing is concerned with the past and is restricted to this timeframe of analysis (Ooi 2002; Wiedmann et al. 2011a).	While both history and heritage are concerned with the past, it is to varying extents. Whereas history is rooted exclusively in the past, heritage includes subsequent timeframes as well as the future. Heritage is less concerned with the objective exploration of the past but more the current and future relevance of the past (Urde et al. 2007; Wiedmann et al. 2011a).
Iconic Branding	Brands that are elevated to a higher than normal status including culturally significant symbols. Iconic brands also incorporate elements of fantasy and imagination (Balmer 2013; Holt 2004; Wiedmann et al. 2011a)	Like iconic brands, heritage brands can also make use of symbols (Wiedmann et al. 2011a). However, unlike iconic branding, incorporating elements of fantasy or myth are not essential for brand heritage (Urde et al. 2007; Wiedmann et al. 2011a).
Tradition	Tradition is the continuation of behaviours that, over time, remain unchanging; tradition can be invented and altered towards enhancing the perception of continuity with the past. Strong tradition can communicate values and reputation that cements relationships or enhances exclusiveness of an organisation (Balmer 2013; Hobswam 1983).	Like brand heritage, tradition can also be augmented or invented towards enhancing the image of an organisation; unlike brand heritage, tradition is less emotionally focused and more static, where tradition emphasises the past's continuation to the present, brand heritage allows for adaptation from a past towards a differing future (Balmer 2011b; Balmer 2013).

Custom	Relating to changeable, malleable behaviours custom pertains more to the nature of such behaviours, less about how they are actioned (Balmer 2013; Hobswam 1983).	Customs are malleable and changeable in similar ways as brand heritage can be augmented or created; however, brand heritage requires a deeper grounding in an organisation's past and evolution, customs can be created far quicker (Balmer 2013).
Melancholia	Melancholia is concerned with a yearning for past sadness (Balmer 2013).	While melancholia has received limited attention within the literature, its principal similarity to brand heritage is through its link to the past; however, melancholia is limited to sad feelings, whereas brand heritage incorporates all feelings. Melancholia can motivate consumption in various industries, such as music or tourism (Balmer 2013).
Heritage Marketing	Heritage marketing is focused on marketing particular areas, and harnessing their history to convey and resurrect feelings associated with them (Balmer 2013; Henderson 2001).	While heritage marketing is particularly concerned with the heritage element, brand heritage does not require a genuine heritage element. Heritage marketing is fixed in time while brand heritage is affected by the past and its subsequent occurrences (Balmer 2013).
Heritage Tourism	Concerned with setting distinct locations within an historical reference, often linking far into the past. Heritage tourism includes both issues of protection and presentation (Balmer 2013; Park 2010).	Heritage tourism is specifically limited to the tourism domain whereas brand heritage is not. Unlike heritage tourism, brand heritage is less concerned with protection/presentation of a particular site and more focused on the emotions affiliated to an organisational brand image (Balmer 2013; Park 2010).

Table 8 serves to clarify brand heritage from related concepts, contributing to the delineation of brand heritage boundaries. Of particular note is that brand heritage is not concerned with a fixed historical event or era but is influenced and, to an extent, constructed by all subsequent actions and events affecting an organisation (Wuestefeld et al. 2012). Brand heritage chimes particularly well with some elements of tradition, described in Table 8. Similar to tradition, brand heritage can, to an extent, be created, and calibrated to strengthen connections to the past. Nevertheless, brand heritage is described by Wiedmann et al (2011a, p. 206) as "...a different branding category with its own set of defining criteria.", thus illustrating the distinctiveness of the concept from those presented in Table 8.

As previously intimated, the investigation of brand heritage within the literature remains limited (Burghausen and Balmer 2014). Of the available extant literature, progress has been made in the operationalisation of brand heritage notions (Hakala et al. 2011) and in developing a robust measurement scale (Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Hakala et al. (2011),

through a case study approach, have attempted an operationalisation of brand heritage towards enhancing its use internationally, establishing the importance of organisations carefully aligning their brand heritage with a host country's culture in order to maximise brand heritage benefits (Hakala et al. 2011). Subsequently, Wiedmann et al (2011a) have investigated brand heritage antecedents and its link to consumer perceptions through the development and application of a formative measurement scale that has since been validated through three studies (Wiedmann et al. 2011a; 2011b; Wuestefeld et al. 2012). The survey instrument consists of pertinent items linking to the five elements of brand heritage (Urde et al. 2007). Furthermore, Wiedmann et al (2011a) present a model illustrating the heritage brand process, linking the concept to practical implications. More recently, Merchant and Rose (2013) have investigated a positive relationship between brand heritage and nostalgia while also presenting a new measurement scale for brand heritage. Surprisingly, Merchant and Rose (2013) incorporated little of the limited literature regarding brand heritage into their investigation, seemingly unaware of the prior existence of relevant measurement scales developed by Wiedmann et al (2011a). Additionally, the disconnect within the literature is evidenced through calls to investigate brand heritage within differing cultures (Merchant and Rose 2013), incognisant of previous research to that end (Hakala et al. 2011). Ultimately, the literature in the brand heritage domain is limited in number, diffuse in scope, and lacking in synthesis. Further research into the application of brand heritage that draws fully upon the body of available literature is needed to stimulate further development of the concept.

3.5.3 *Brand Heritage in the non-profit sector*

A growing interest in branding within the non-profit sector, as discussed in section 3.2 volunteer oriented literature, has omitted empirical exploration of brand heritage. Within the non-profit sector, organisations' brands have often developed, organically, over time (Mort et al. 2007). This natural development, coupled with an intimate connection between non-profit sector organisations' brands and their core values (Stride 2006) lends the notion of heritage an increased provenance and, perhaps, value to the volunteer, in this context.

While the application of marketing theory has gained some traction in the non-profit sector context, the consideration of brand heritage has been far more restrained. Indeed, excepting some limited acknowledgement of brand heritage within the university sector (Balmer 2013), and an exploratory case study qualitatively identifying the need for further investigation (Mort et al. 2007) there has been no explicit application of the

concept within a non-profit sector setting. Despite this lack of application, the non-profit sector is noted to be heavily populated with brands imbued with heritage (Mort et al. 2007). Consequently, this research acknowledges the growing importance of brand heritage and, for the first time, quantitatively explores its influence upon volunteering within the non-profit sector.

3.6 Experience Stage

Guided by the volunteer process model, the experience stage is suggested to include *communitas*, brand image, and volunteer work engagement. Consequently, the following sections within the experience stage (3.7, 3.8, and 3.9) now discuss the development, and meaning of *communitas*, brand image, and volunteer work engagement within this study.

3.7 Communitas

Communitas is commonly conceptualised as one of three components that comprise the notion of ‘play’, which has been investigated in ritualistic, leisure, and hedonistic experience consumption where it evokes a spirit of intense camaraderie and bonding amongst groups of individuals (Celsi et al. 1993; McGinnis et al. 2008; 2012). Indeed, *communitas* has been described as “a spontaneous sensation of mutual communication and unity... which transcends the quotidian markers of social structure, such as class, status, education, employment, or political affiliations” (Di Giovine 2011 p. 247). Stemming from seminal, anthropologically-oriented research (Turner 1969), *communitas* (which is distinct from a seminal work on town planning of the same name (see: Goodman and Goodman 1947)) has emerged as a pertinent marketing concept, which has led the discipline to identify, and explore new approaches to maximising the value of *communitas* experiences (Taheri et al. 2016). *Communitas* experiences are suggested to occur when:

“...people of different backgrounds and places within the social order communicate and bond with one another without considering one’s social standing...” (McGinnis et al. 2008 p. 76).

The reported benefits of fostering *communitas*-rich experiences justify increasing marketer interest (McGinnis et al. 2008; Wallace 2006), yet despite volunteering incorporating groups that transcend typical social orders and standings (Musick and Wilson 2008), *communitas* has only been investigated tacitly, and qualitatively in relation to volunteers (Wallace 2006). The following sections consider the development of *communitas*, its liminal, and liminoid underpinnings, its contemporary application in

marketing and management research, and its relevance to the non-profit sector, before arguments against, and conclusions regarding *communitas* are offered.

3.7.1 *The development of communitas*

Communitas was first conceptualised by Turner - a symbolic anthropologist - when exploring the feelings of oneness, and togetherness individuals experience during acts of religious pilgrimage (Di Giovine 2011; Turner 1964). Indeed, this early research led to suggestions that such feelings of intense social bonding (i.e., *communitas*) could act as a strong motivation for the act of pilgrimage. Turner's contributions to the field of symbolic anthropology are grounded on both structural functionalism and Marxist social perspectives, which were synthesised and applied to ritual processes by Max Gluckman who subsequently mentored and influenced Turner (Di Giovine 2011; Werbner 1984). Structural functionalism perspectives portraying society as a collection of mutually dependent, but unequal organisms suggest *communitas*-like experiences only occurring when the societal sections comprising the 'organism' lose synchronicity, helping them return to it (Di Giovine 2011; Durkheim 1978). The competing Marxist perspective viewed society as transitioning from an intensely stratified, to a utopic and equal structure which rejected traditional drivers of wealth and status (Di Giovine 2011). Tempered by Turner's interest in performance theory, these schools of thought helped shape his conceptualisations of ritualistic or highly significant instances in society (Di Giovine 2011; Turner 1964; 1967).

Turner's *communitas* builds upon ritual structures introduced by van Gennep (1909[1960]), which describe various liminal stages. Etymologically, liminal connotes demarcations between stages of, and individuals' immersion in ritualistic activity, compared with their typical states (Di Giovine 2011; Turner 1964). Thus, literature suggests three stages of liminal experience, pre-liminal (the individuals' typical state), liminal (the transformative stage between the typical state to a new one), and post-liminal (re-alignment to the typical state) (Di Giovine 2011; Turner 1964). *Communitas* is most closely concerned with the transitional, liminal phase or, indeed, *liminoid* space (derived wholly of an individual's own volition) (McGinnis et al. 2008; Taheri et al. 2016), which is noted as having the propensity to be highly transformational and removed from an individual's typical social world; it is within these situations "betwixt and between" (Turner 1964), "when traditional social conventions are suspended (if not inverted), that the fleeting sensation of *communitas* emerges" (Di Giovine 2011 p. 251). Through this, the influences of the previously discussed structural functionalism and Marxist

perspectives can be argued to have resulted in an alternative, *communitas* oriented approach, echoing the 'reset' moments that re-instil synchronicity between unequal parts of a societal organism, tempered by the egalitarianism, but not the conformism inherent in Marxist perspectives (Di Giovine 2011; Turner 1964; 1973).

The beneficial effects attributable to *communitas* are, in part, suggested to be an outcome of its anti-structural nature (Deegan 1998; McGinnis et al. 2008; Turner 1969). Thus, *communitas* experiences are more likely to occur where an individual's personal status, professional position, or wealth represent no effect upon a particular group's functioning. Consequently, within such liminal, or liminoid spaces which contribute to fostering social space free from social hierarchy, intense bonding and camaraderie is shared amongst individuals. McGinnis et al. (2008 p. 76) portray *communitas* as being "...an elevated, extraordinary experience shared with other human beings".

Communitas is held to be multi-layered, as such occurring in one of three forms which, are argued, develop cyclically: existential, normative, and ideological (Di Giovine 2011; Turner and Turner 1978). While existential *communitas* is suggested to represent the sudden, organically produced feelings of intense camaraderie and oneness that can occur amongst anyone, normative *communitas* constitutes an attempt to formalise such experiences through integration and organisation, through the encouragement of *communitas* experiences by aspiring couriers of *communitas*. For example, the Catholic Church is suggested to encourage and organise *communitas* experiences through official edicts and guidance (Di Giovine 2011). Ideological *communitas* represents further departure from the *communitas* concept's core anti-structural character, but is suggested to be a natural progression of existential *communitas* where the processes, and the promise of achieving existential *communitas* contribute to an ideological agenda or system, before existential *communitas* is then revived in a new societal space (Di Giovine 2011; Turner 2004).

Early applications of *communitas* were most prominent in religious settings, for example, acts of catholic pilgrimage (Di Giovine 2011; Turner 1973). Such acts and undertakings are suggested to result in an individual occupying a liminoid space - reflecting the often volitional nature of pilgrimage - within which *communitas*-rich experiences could potentially occur (Di Giovine 2011; Turner 1973; Turner and Turner 1978). Furthermore, the pilgrimage context caters for the anti-structural character of *communitas*, as pilgrims are often expected to complete their journeys abiding by particular rules and constraints, removed from their typical geographical settings, suppressing to varying extents the

influence of an individual's social status (Di Giovine 2011; Turner and Turner 1978). Consideration of *communitas* has also been applied to more secular, non-religious contexts such as motorcycle sub-culture (Schouten and McAlexander 1995), wilderness expeditions (Sharpe 2005), white-water rafting (Arnould and Price 1993), skydiving (Celsi et al. 1993), and golf (McGinnis et al. 2008; 2012). When undertaking activities such as sky-diving, individuals embark on an experience in some ways similar to an act of pilgrimage. For example, participants in both activities transition through separation from their everyday lives (e.g., joining a skydiving expedition as opposed to going to work), a liminal or liminoid space (e.g., during the sky-diving experience), and consequent readjustment to their original state (van Gennep 1909[1960]; McGinnis et al. 2012). Thus, during both skydiving and pilgrimage experiences, an individual occupies a unique social space free from the pressures and strains of everyday life, allowing the positive camaraderie and togetherness inherent in *communitas* to thrive (Celsi et al. 1993; McGinnis et al. 2008; McGinnis et al. 2012). Contemporary, empirical investigations of *communitas* are summarised in Table 9 below.

Table 9: Summary of Contemporary Communitas Research

Context	Summary	Methodological Approach	Source
Motorcycle Subculture	Investigates consumer subcultures, highlights the propensity for communitas experiences and 'oneness' to manifest amongst Harley Davidson motorcyclists. Suggests communitas could be conducive to consumers' continuing commitment to the Harley Davidson subculture.	Ethnographic approach utilising formal and informal interviews, extensive observations, and photographs.	Schouten and McAlexander 1995
Skydiving	Skydivers can achieve communitas-experiences, and positive effects from communitas contribute to sustaining consumption of high-risk leisure.	Ethnographic study utilising interviews and observations.	Celsi et al. 1993
White-water Rafting	Considers communitas within white-water rafting experiences, notes communitas experiences to be sought after manifesting between guides and participants, as well as amongst participants generally. Communitas suggested to be attributable to organised games, as well as occurring as a response to moments of intensity requiring high levels of team coordination.	Ethnographic, using interviews and observations, but supplemented with some statistical analysis.	Arnould and Price 1993
Wilderness Expeditions	Investigated communitas experiences delivered by an extreme experience leisure company. Identifies clarifying aims, recruitment and training of staff, atmosphere setting, influencing experience interpretations and maintaining authority.	Ethnographic approach employing, participant observations and in-depth interviews.	Sharpe 2005
Heritage Railway	Argues railway preservation volunteers are on a form of pilgrimage, volunteering in a liminal space. Suggests communitas experiences become appealing to individuals in situations of alienated labour.	Ethnographic approach, utilising observations, informal interviews, and photographs.	Wallace 2006
Golf	Investigated communitas experiences amongst female golfers, demonstrating communitas occurring, more often amongst male golfers.	In-depth interviews.	McGinnis et al. 2008
Golf	Considers sacred experiences in golf, finding communitas (along with flow, participation frequency, and desire for special status) to be antecedents.	Quantitative approach; develops and applies a communitas scale.	McGinnis et al. 2012
Night-clubbing	Investigates communitas' role in stimulating pleasure and arousal amongst consumers of night-clubbing experiences. Shows communitas, has a positive effect.	Quantitative approach to develop a structure equation model using PLS.	Taheri et al. 2016

As Table 9 shows, *communitas* research has been conducted in various, predominantly leisure-oriented settings (McGinnis et al. 2008; Sharpe 2005). Although most contemporary *communitas* studies have taken an ethnographic research approach, McGinnis et al. (2012) have enabled progression of quantitative-based research through developing a *communitas* measurement scale, subsequently validated in a night-clubbing context by Taheri et al. (2016). Consequently, this research answers calls from the literature to apply the measurement model in new contexts (McGinnis et al. 2012; Taheri et al. 2016).

Table 9 also highlights a general oversight within the non-profit literature, which has failed to develop tacit suggestions from Wallace (2006) that the concept can positively impact upon volunteers. Specifically, Wallace (2006) conceptualised volunteers' railway conservation and restoration efforts as ritualistic experiences, finding tacit evidence that *communitas* holds appeal to such volunteers. This research seeks to advance the application of *communitas* to volunteering contexts, and considers it for the first time in relation to brand heritage, brand image, volunteer work engagement, affective commitment and satisfaction with management.

3.7.2 *Operationalising communitas*

The operationalisation of *communitas* has occurred slowly but gradually. As Table 9 shows, *communitas* research has, until recently, been characterised by ethnographic methodological approaches predominantly incorporating interviews and observational data (see: Arnould and Price 1993; McGinnis et al. 2008; Sharpe 2005). While these qualitative methodological approaches can be credited with establishing points of departure for subsequent research, more recently conducted quantitative research using a newly developed *communitas* scale (McGinnis et al. 2012; Taheri et al. 2016), can allow more standardised exploration of relationships between variables including flow, pleasure, arousal and ego satiation with *communitas*, constituting a new phase of *communitas* research. Such standardisation is particularly welcome given that the accuracy of *communitas* research has been questioned by authors, particularly in relation to the ability of an external researcher to accurately observe and understand such a subjective and inherently personal phenomenon (Di Giovine 2011). This challenge can be exacerbated through a propensity for *communitas* to occur in liminal space that is characterised by rituals, language and behaviour that could prove difficult for outsiders to interpret and access (Di Giovine 2011; Turner 2004; 1964). Di Giovine (2011) describes how specialised knowledge and preconceived notions held by individuals can

significantly alter their consequent *communitas* experiences. Thus, research seeking to investigate *communitas* in a meaningful way should clarify the position of the researcher, and their ability to understand the idioms and practices employed by the individuals being studied. This research utilises the only established *communitas* scale (McGinnis et al. 2012), but contributes by testing it in a new context, and as part of a new theoretical model.

3.7.3 *Communitas and the non-profit sector*

Despite application in various leisure settings (Celsi et al. 1993; McGinnis et al. 2008; Sharpe 2005), *communitas* has only tacitly been investigated within the context of volunteers in non-profit organisations (Wallace 2006). The lack of empirical research in this area represents a significant oversight, given the conceivable salience of *communitas* to the non-profit sector. For example, *communitas* has been suggested to be most appropriate to liminal, or liminoid contexts which are derived at an individual's own volition, where typical social structures, status, and power are removed (Di Giovine 2011; Turner 1964). Wallace's (2006) suggestion that volunteering experiences can occupy a liminal space is tacitly supported by the broader volunteering literature, which intimates volunteering can offer new life experiences, social opportunities, and challenge (Harbert 2012; Musick and Wilson 2008).

Volunteer research has also widely identified the social aspect of volunteering to be a strong motivator for volunteers with researchers identifying the multiple psychological and even physical health benefits this can produce (Harbert 2012; Musick and Wilson 2008). Specifically, longitudinal studies indicate strong support that volunteering can slow the reported negative effects of aging, reduce loneliness, push back against depression, and contribute to overall improvement in mortality rates amongst older people (Anderson et al. 2014; Lum and Lightfoot 2005; Musick and Wilson 2003). Thus, *communitas*' propensity to stimulate intense bonding, and camaraderie amongst groups of people, could contribute to enhancing the social appeal to both current and prospective volunteers.

Furthermore, despite a previous association with religion, and religious experience, *communitas* has been shown to play a significant role in secular settings such as golf courses and night clubs (Di Giovine 2011; McGinnis et al. 2008; Taheri et al. 2016). McGinnis et al. (2008) note how golf can represent a rite of passage, and can be characterised by the movement of an individual through three phases: separation from their typical social environment, a liminal state removed and separated from their prior

state, and a subsequent readjustment to normal, having experienced liminality (see: van Gennep 1909[1960]). Similarly, volunteering can remove individuals from their typical state, and has the potential to create spaces in which volunteers could be “betwixt and between” and, therefore, open to *communitas* experiences (Turner 1964; Wallace 2006). Consideration of *communitas* occurring within a voluntary organisation as a result of the processes, customs, and spaces inherent within it speaks to understanding of the three types of *communitas* outlined in the literature and discussed in Section 3.7.1 (Di Giovine 2011; Turner and Turner 1978). In the case of voluntary organisations, developing understanding of the normative phase of *communitas*, (that which is actively encouraged by structures) could enlighten volunteer managers to methods of incorporating *communitas*-inducing experiences into their volunteer offerings.

Management of *communitas* experiences, and the spaces in which they occur, is suggested to be particularly challenging, as alteration and adjustment to such spaces is complicated by the subjective and personal relationship that develops between individuals and particular experiences (Di Giovine 2011). For example Di Giovine (2011) notes how *communitas* space was controversially altered in a religious setting, with the exhumation and display of the Catholic religious figure Padre Pio’s body at a newly selected site. This case involved multiple stakeholders who held different views on the re-positioning of a religious figure’s body who evoked various levels of intense feeling amongst different individuals. Thus, the authorities who undertook the project found themselves altering (positively and negatively) the potential for individuals to (re-)experience *communitas*. In particular, those who attended Padre Pio’s former burial site felt placing his body on display in an ornate casket diminished the propensity of them experiencing *communitas*. Similar concerns could be applicable to volunteers, who each develop their own personal relationships with host organisations over time. For example, significant changes in the core activities or an organisation, its beliefs, or values could influence currently occurring, and potential future re-occurrence of *communitas*.

Ultimately, *communitas* represents a potentially substantial oversight within the non-profit literature, despite evidence that it could hold particular value to the sector, and impact positively on the volunteering process. Consequently, this research builds on contributions by Wallace (2006) to explore *communitas* interaction with volunteers.

3.8 Brand Image

The importance of branding to organisations is discussed in section 3.5.1 where brands, their salience to, and relationship with brand heritage are considered. This section

explores brand image which extends consideration of the brand, and represents a critical element of successful marketing operations (Hsieh et al. 2004), whereby the offerings of the brand are conveyed, differentiation from competition highlighted, and consumer purchase likelihood is increased (Hsieh et al. 2004). While brand image can also act as a catalyst for developing brand equity (Aaker 1996; Park and Srinivasan 1994) research towards understanding the concept has followed a disparate path and is lacking a dominant definition (Stern et al. 2002), leading to concern that the meaning of the concept is being eroded and devalued through consecutive misuse (Bullmore 1984; Dobni and Zinkhan 1990). According to brand image literature, the concept is useful in propagating trust and encouraging stability, especially in established and competitive markets (Grace and O'Cass 2005; Kay 2006; Rindell and Iglesias 2014). Cognisant of this, this section explores varying definitions of brand image, critically exploring where and how the concept has been used, before investigating its use in the non-profit sector context.

3.8.1 *Evolution and definitions of brand image*

Brand image, stemming from psychology, was initially a tool of investigation within consumer behaviour, consequently, resulting from a prevailing consensus with Gardner and Levy's (1955) assertion that products possess an existential as well as physical value, the notion of brand image gained traction. To date, the evolution of brand image has witnessed four significant stages (Hsieh et al. 2004): its original form where consumers attitudes about a brand constituted the brand image (Bird et al. 1970); a developed incarnation where brand image affected consumer brand preference (Gensch 1978; Shocker and Srinivasan 1979); an attitude-based perspective which promotes linkage between brand image and other concepts towards deepening understanding of brand management (Hsieh et al. 2004; Zinkhan and Hirschheim 1992), and the current concept where brand image is viewed as the multidimensional sum of consumer perceptions of a brand after being influenced by their internally held brand associations (Hsieh et al. 2004). Consistently, studies show brand image has become a vital tool to marketing managers predicated upon a demonstrated influence over purchase decisions (Dolich 1969), a growing awareness that symbolic rather than functional value is increasingly coveted amongst consumers (Levy 1959b), and the inherent value in the harmonisation between the actual or ideal self-image of a consumer, and their selection of a brand (Sirgy 1985). Ultimately, research strongly supports the notion that the establishment of a successful brand image increases the likelihood of consumers purchasing or associating with a particular brand or service (Hsieh et al. 2004; O'Cass and Grace 2004). This

notion is equally transferable to employees and their organisations (Lievens et al. 2007) as well as volunteers and voluntary organisations (Bennett and Gabriel 2003; Michel and Rieunier 2012).

Unfortunately, increasing interest in brand image is attributable to a multiplicity of meanings being ascribed to the concept, rendering a widely agreed definition difficult to achieve, a task further complicated by the tendency of researchers to interchange brand image with terms such as brand identity and brand personality (Bullmore 1984; Dobni and Zinkhan 1990). To mitigate further confusion, brand personality is defined as “...the set of human characteristics associated with a brand.” (Aaker 1997 p. 347), whereas the difference between brand image and brand identity can be imagined as the packaging of the brand representing brand identity, and the result of the un-packaging process by the consumer creating brand image, thus validating its position in the theoretical model (Nandan 2005). Influenced by the research paradigm in which studies are located, six strands of definitional perspective have emerged: broad definitions, symbolic, personification, meanings and messages, cognitive or psychological and more contemporary multidimensional oriented definitions (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990).

Four major attempts to broadly define brand image have been made. Table 10 highlights some of the early attempts to convey the essence of the concept.

Table 10: Dimensional Perspective Brand Image Definitions

Dimensional Perspective	Source	Brand Image Definition
Broad Definitions	Newman 1957 p. 100	“A product is a symbol by virtue of its form, size, colour, and functions. Its significance as a symbol varies according to how much it is associated with individual needs and social interaction. A product, then, is the sum of the meanings it communicates, often unconsciously, to others when they look at it or use it.”
	Herzog 1963 p. 82	“Brand image is the sum total of impressions the consumer receives from many sources... All these impressions amount to a sort of brand personality which is similar for the consuming public at large, although different consumer groups may have different attitudes toward it.”
	Snyder and DeBono 1985 p. 586	“Practitioners of the soft sell approach typically create ads that appeal to the images associated with the use of the product, images that one may gain and project by using the product or, more specifically, the images associated with the use of the products.”
	Dichter 1985 p. 75	“The concept of image can be applied to a product... It describes not individual traits or qualities, but the total impression an entity makes on the minds of others.” “An image is not anchored in just objective data and details. It is the configuration of the whole field of the object, the advertising, and, most important, the customer's disposition and the attitudinal screen through which he observes.”

Table 10 charts the early development of brand image. However, examination of these evidently broad conceptualisations demonstrates the breadth of scope, and incongruence between the various definitions, thus exemplifying one of the primary constraints on brand image development (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990). While the definitions shown in Table 10 convey the general notion of brand image, they offer little in the way of a refined understanding (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990). Nevertheless, in their simplicity, the idea that consumer perceptions on an existential level equate to more significance than the functional attributes of a product can be successfully conveyed to a wide audience (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990).

Building on early, broadly focused definitions, emerged a more complex focus on the symbolic value of brands. Definitions of a symbolic perspective emphasise the existential qualities of brands and products, where consumers are viewed as purchasing the symbol, or symbolic value of a product as much as the functional product itself, a perspective reinforced by acknowledgement that:

“At the heart of it all is the fact that the consumer is not as functionally oriented as he used to be — if he ever really was.” (Levy 1959b p. 118)

Consequently, this highlights the growing sophistication, or indeed awareness of sophistication, of the modern consumer. Symbols in this sense are broadly defined as an instance where a considered behaviour or action, objects, words and pictures represent ideas or feelings other than themselves (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990; Levy 1959a). Table 11 highlights definitions from this perspective.

Table 11: Symbolic Perspective Brand Image Definitions

Dimensional Perspective	Source	Brand Image Definition
Symbolic	Levy 1959b p. 118-119	“People buy things not only for what they can do, but also for what they mean... The things people buy are seen to have personal and social meanings in addition to their functions.”
	Pohlman and Mudd 1973 p. 167	“The purchased item is conceptualized as having two kinds of value for the owner, one for its concrete functional utility and the other for its utility as a prestige symbol [...] functional value is that which is conventionally meant by utility as a good, while symbolic value (i.e., image) is the extent to which a purchase enhances the worth of the person in his own eyes (self-esteem) and in the eyes of others (status).”
	Frazer 1983 p. 38	“...the advertiser formulates a claim of superiority or distinction based on factors extrinsic to the product. Often products are associated with symbols, either socially extant or created by or for the advertiser [...] the effort to differentiate the product is psychologically rather than physically based.”
	Nöth 1988 p. 355	“From this perspective (i.e., semiotics) commodities are studies as signs whose meaning is the consumer’s brand image [...] include technical matters, product characteristics, financial value, or social suitability. Semiotically, such components constitute the signified (or content) of the product, while the material object is the signifier of the commodity as a sign.”

Table 11 conveys the essence of symbolically-oriented conceptualisations of brand image. Characteristically, there is incongruence and variation within the symbolic definitional strand of brand image (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990) ranging, for example, from the simplistic use of ‘symbol’ in reference to a product acting as a symbol in an associative sense - revealing little with regard to brand image (Frazer 1983) - to more complex definitions incorporating semiotic theory whereby the consumer constructs their own symbolic brand image through the consumption, and adoption of brands (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990; Nöth 1988). Dobni and Zinkhan (1990) note that symbolic-oriented definitions of brand image emphasise a notion of proactive, rather than passive consumption whereby consumers actively seek and embrace symbolic representations that support their self-concept. Consequently, consumers express their personality, aims, and values through the use of such symbols (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990).

Further to the symbolic perspective emerged a related, although arguably distinct (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990) self-concept oriented strand. Self-concept oriented definitions, characterised by terms such as “brand personality” (Hendon and Williams 1985 p. 66) and “brand character” (Hendon and Williams 1985 p. 66) operate on two levels. The manifestations of human nature within brands, whereby they possess psychological and social qualities (Gardner and Levy 1955) for example, Children in Needs’ Pudsey Bear,

and, secondly, through establishing links between the consumer's self-concept or personality and a brand's image (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990). Proponents of this approach argue self-concept holds significant influence over consumer purchase decisions (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990). Table 12 illustrates popular brand image definitions from the self-concept perspective.

Table 12: Personification Emphasis Definitions of Brand Image

Dimensional

Perspective	Source	Brand Image Definition
Personification	Bettinger et al. 1979 p. 35	"...creating an adult purchasing predisposition for a product oriented toward the child consumer."
	Hendon and Williams 1985 p. 66	"Also known as "brand personality" or "brand character," it involves nothing more than describing a product as if it were a human being. This is an effective way of generating interest because people favor products that match their own self-image or personality."
	Debevec and Iyer 1986 p. 12	"In positioning and repositioning products, advertisers often work to create a gender image for a brand..."

An emphasis on personification within branding, conveyed in Table 12, is indicative of marketing trends during that era, which witnessed the increasingly strong personification of brands (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990). One of the strengths in defining brand image from a personification perspective is the congruence between brand image, and the personality concept, in which personality is also abstract and multi-dimensional, resulting in brand image being formed through the consumer's self-concept, and its interaction with a product personality (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990). Issues constraining the development of this strand of brand image research include the complexity of the personality concept which has typically proved difficult for researchers to measure (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990), resulting in an oversimplification of the personality concept to indicators such as gender (Debevec and Iyer 1986; Dobni and Zinkhan 1990) and age (Bettinger et al. 1979; Dobni and Zinkhan 1990).

The third perspective holds brands to be attributed with underlying meanings; proponents of this view investigate “brand meaning” (Durgee and Stuart 1987 p. 16), and the messages conveyed by products (Friedmann and Lessig 1987), towards understanding “...the established role of products as messages” (Swartz 1983 p. 59). The assumption underpinning the meaning and messages perspective is predicated upon homogeneity between the messages projected by brands within a similar product category, thus, eliciting meaning between brand and customer can allow for product differentiation (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990). Table 13 shows definitions from a meaning and messages perspective.

Table 13: Meanings and Messages Definitions of Brand Image

Dimensional Perspective	Source	Brand Image Definition
Meaning and Messages	Grubb and Grathwohl 1967 p. 23	“A more specific means of developing a theoretical approach to consumer behaviour is to link the psychological construct of an individual's self-concept with the symbolic value of the goods purchased in the marketplace.”
	Swartz 1983 p. 59	“In symbolic consumer behaviour, interest lies in investigating the role of products as “messages” or “nonverbal communication” transmitted by the user/owner. Attention needs to be given to differentiating the message the product sends as a marketing strategy.”
	Reynolds and Gutman 1984 p. 27	“...the set of meanings and associations that serve to differentiate a product or service from its competition.”
	Durgee and Stuart 1987 p. 16	“...each brand has to rely heavily on what it connotes or means symbolically in the eyes of consumers.”

Constraints affecting the meaning and messages definitions shown in Table 13 lie in understanding the nature of ‘meaning’, which has been conceived as the combination of significant meanings attributed to a product or brand, or the symbolic meaning elicited amongst consumers (Durgee and Stuart 1987). Consequently, three levels of meaning for a product were presented as causality, similarity and the marketing context (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990; Durgee and Stuart 1987). Research by Swartz (1983), however, negates these issues, focusing instead on differentiation from competition that can be accrued through emphasising the message constructed by consumer use and ownership of a product. Contributing to the polyphony of research within this perspective, Reynolds and

Gutman (1984) argue that meanings established through brands are elements of product imagery, resting within consumers memories where they are later recalled to provide an individual with a basic image of a brand. Thus, brand image research emphasising meaning and message conveyance represents a complex, weakly delineated area; consequently investigation holding this perspective is limited (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990). Research stemming from a cognitive or psychological perspective maintains a relatively high degree of homogeny amongst definitions of brand image attributable to the commonality of terminology, focusing on feelings, ideas, and attitudes (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990), furthermore, while these definitions avoid explicit reference to Gardner and Levy's (1955) seminal definitions, the influence of the latter is evident (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990). Table 14 illustrates some of the definitions emerging from the cognitive/psychological perspective.

Table 14: Cognitive/Psychological Definitions of Brand Image

Dimensional Perspective	Source	Brand Image Definition
Cognitive or Psychological	Reynolds 1965 p. 69	"An image [...] is the mental construct developed by the consumer on the basis of a few selected impressions among the flood of total impressions; it comes into being through a creative process in which these selected impressions are elaborated, embellished, and ordered."
	Reynolds 1965 p. 65	"Images are ordered wholes built by consumers from scraps of significant detail in much the same way that writers and artists use significant detail to illumine complex totalities."
	Park et al. 1986 p. 135	"A brand image is not simply a perceptual phenomenon affected by the firm's communication activities alone. It is the understanding consumers derive from the total set of brand related activities engaged in by the firm."
	Gensch 1978 p. 384	"The term 'image' ... an abstract concept incorporating the influences of past promotion, reputation and peer evaluation of the alternative. Image connotes expectations of a consumer. The interaction of these two variables individual attribute measurements and image, is assumed to vary across product types and across individuals."

The definitions espoused in Table 14 emphasise the personal nature of brand image interpretation, where the brand image is formed in tandem with the consumer's own

preferences, preconceived notions, and selected augmentations. Consequently, the measurement of brand image, from this attitudinal perspective is more achievable (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990). However, defining a brand through perceived attributes based on consumer attitudes alone is criticised by Dobni and Zinkhan (1990) for its inadequacy in situations where two brands generate comparable attitudinal value ratings, but hold varying levels of market share which is consequently left unexplained. Nevertheless, cognitive and psychological-oriented definitions, with their emphasis on reason and consumer evaluation offers a useful alternative to the notion of brand image being predominantly governed by feelings and emotions (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990).

More recently, an empirically applied, multidimensional perspective has emerged within brand image research (Keller 1993; Vazquez et al. 2002). Plummer (1985) moves towards conceptualising brand image from an holistic, multidimensional perspective, highlighting its three constituent elements as physical, functional, and personality. Since the 1990s, researchers have moved away from viewing brand image as exclusively product focused, allowing examination of service brand image to take place. Current discourse is centred on determining the applicability of dimensions across contexts, with evidence suggesting the requirement of contextual variances (Hsieh 2002; Michel and Rieunier 2012) between private, service, public and non-profit sectors. Table 15 illustrates some of these definitional attempts.

Table 15: Multidimensional Emphasis Definitions of Brand Image

Dimensional Perspective	Source	Brand Image Definition
Multidimensional Emphasis	Plummer 1985 p. 81	“So then, to recapitulate, there are three primary components to a brand's image, three aspects of the brand's description. There are its physical elements or attributes, the functional characteristics or the benefits or consequences of using a brand, and the way the brand is characterized, or its personality. These elements, mediated by whatever the viewer brings to the interaction, are in some way transformed into the viewer's head into "appropriate for me" or "not appropriate for me"; or possibly, "me for it.””
	Keller 1993	“...brand image is defined here as perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in consumer memory. Brand associations are the other informational nodes linked to the brand node in memory and contain the meaning of the brand for consumers. The favourability, strength, and uniqueness of brand associations are the dimensions distinguishing brand knowledge that play an important role in determining the differential response that makes up brand equity, especially in high involvement decision settings.”
	Vazquez et al. 2002 p. 41	“In this way, customer-perceived value of the brand represents a multidimensional concept. Nevertheless, this affirmation does not invalidate the holistic conception of the brand, since it has been confirmed that the different dimensions show a strong inter-relation. The correlations between the dimensions are highly significant, although they maintain discriminant validity. In short, the consumer's perceptions about the different attributes of a brand are highly related, but can be ordered in independent dimensions.”
	Michel and Rieunier 2012 p. 702	“Indeed, the concept of brand image can serve to differentiate the roles of functional and symbolic associations of the brand. The notion of associations used in previous studies [...] presents the advantage of grouping all knowledge of the brand without focusing on certain specific aspects of image such as personality traits or values.”

Table 15 presents some contemporary definitions of brand image, the most prevalent of which is offered by Keller (1993) and has been used in a variety of contexts (Martinez and Pina 2003; Michel and Rieunier 2012). Keller (1993) describes how consumers relate incoming information to their memories, but later modifies this definition to describe brand image as a construct of judgements, feelings, performance and imagery (Keller 2001). Building on Keller's (1993) conceptualisation, Vasquez et al. (2002) emphasise the interrelatedness of elements of brand image, with different elements holding varying levels of power in different situations, leading Sonnier and Ainslie (2011) to investigate and verify the usefulness of evaluating brand image which can be heavily influenced by affective impressions. Finally, Michel and Rieunier (2012) note the advantage of taking a multidimensional perspective, in which the brand image is ground upon multiple elements towards conveying both functional as well as symbolic offerings from a brand.

Examination of the wide range of definitions in the above tables serves to illustrate the diversity of meanings and constituent elements of brand image. Furthermore, the evolution of the concept is evident, and its relation to similar concepts clarified. An increasing dominance within contemporary literature of definitions underpinned by Keller's (1993) conceptualisation has encouraged the operationalisation of the brand image concept and empirical research to take place.

3.8.2 *Operationalising brand image*

The operationalisation of brand image has been restricted for some time by the multiplicity of brand image definitions and debate regarding appropriate methods of measurement (Cian 2011). However, growing consensus and an increasing proliferation of definitions rooted on Keller's (1993) conceptualisation have promoted the concept's development. Resultantly, discussion pertaining to its measurement has been stimulated, fostering the creation of various brand image measurement approaches (Cian 2011) including scale development (Michel and Rieunier 2012), and interviews (Mort et al. 2007). In recent years, greater focus has been given to ensuring reliable brand image measurements, which has been shown to be influenced by survey answer formats (Dolnicar et al. 2012). Criticisms of a methodological nature suggest binary responses in brand image survey design are more effective than a typical, multi-option approach (Dolnicar and Grün 2007; Dolnicar et al. 2011; Dolnicar et al. 2012). Nevertheless, the use of multi-item response options in brand image research remains widespread (Knox and Freeman 2006; Michel and Rieunier 2012; Wiedmann et al. 2011a). The malleability of brand image is demonstrated through its use in various contexts (Nyadzayo et al. 2015), originating within a business to consumer setting, it has been applied to business to business (Bendixen et al. 2004), service (O'Cass and Grace 2004), human resource (Knox and Freeman 2006) and non-profit sector contexts (Michel and Rieunier 2012). This research contributes further to this discourse, by applying the brand image concept to a new, Scouting context, and investigating its relationships to brand heritage for the first time.

3.8.3 *Application within non-profit sector*

Despite a long-held realisation of its value, and a generally accepted view that marketing is of salient importance to the non-profit sector (Rees 1998), there has been limited application of the brand image concept within the non-profit sector (Michel and Rieunier 2012), often negating earlier acceptance that the alignment of brand image with trust and brand awareness was of value to non-profit sector organisations (Saxton 1995). Bennett

and Gabriel (2003), conducting one of the earliest empirical investigations concerning brand image in the non-profit sector, distinguish charity reputation from brand image, noting reputation to be measureable by the popularity of a charity, and brand image to consist of a consciously manufactured mix of compassion, dynamism, idealism, focus towards beneficiaries, and maintaining a non-political stance. Reputations are described as requiring a long time to create, being less easily fashioned, and capable of eliciting more trust than brand image (Bennett and Gabriel 2003; Herbig and Milewicz 1995). Through this approach, donor behaviour was found to be strongly influenced by reputation and charity brand image (Bennett and Gabriel 2003).

Continuing Bennett and Gabriel's (2003) vein of investigation, the concept of brand image was augmented and applied, uncovering evidence that brand image can account for 31% of intentions to make financial donations, and 23% of people's decisions to volunteer to give their time with non-profit sector organisations (Michel and Rieunier 2012). Michel and Rieunier (2012), developing a new brand image scale, specifically for the non-profit sector, perceive non-profit sector brand image as consisting of four dimensions: usefulness, efficiency, affect and dynamism. While elements of the scale are similar to the measurement instrument used in prior research (Bennett and Gabriel 2003), it differs in three ways. Usefulness and efficiency are presented as two distinct elements, whereas previous research combined them under the banner of reputation (Bennett and Gabriel 2003; Michel and Rieunier 2012). Secondly, brand image elements of idealism and political orientation described by Bennett and Gabriel (2003) are removed through an evidenced lack of significance by Michel and Rieunier (2012). Finally, there is discord between results of Bennett and Gabriel's (2003) early investigation of brand image and subsequent research by Michel and Rieunier (2012), the former ascribing limited value to the brand image affective element, and the latter demonstrating its salience to the brand image concept.

Randle et al. (2013), developing understanding of brand image in the non-profit sector, suggest brand image is as valuable to non-profit sector organisations in generating competitive advantage as it is to private sector companies. However, variations amongst volunteers, and particularities of the non-profit sector render neither a collaborative, nor a purely competitive strategy of using brand image suitable for all competing non-profit sector organisations; instead, they must determine the most effective of the two approaches for their own marketing environments (Randle et al. 2013).

Ultimately, despite sporadic investigation and application, brand image has been regularly associated with elements of trust, positive effects on donor intention, and aiding the recruitment of volunteers, but investigation of it as a multi-dimensional concept has been lacking (Bendapudi et al. 1996; Chiagouris 2005; Michel and Rieunier 2012; Randle et al. 2013; Saxton 1995).

3.8.4 *Brand heritage and brand image*

Brand heritage and brand image are intimately related (Hudson 2011; Wiedmann et al. 2011a) (see section 3.5). Predicated on both concepts communicating through the medium of a brand, many brands, without explicit acknowledgement of a heritage element are imbued with an inherent heritage which may be unconsciously communicated along with other products, services or organisational attributes (Balmer 2013). This is demonstrated through the extension of heritage inherent in Cunard's newest ships, which are designed to incorporate the shipping company's rich heritage, to the company's advertising and marketing strategies (Hudson 2011). Similarly, many consumers, without explicit acknowledgement, possess preconceived notions of heritage, and are receptive to heritage-laden messages eliciting perceptions of trust, continuity and historical provenance (Hudson 2011; Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Furthermore, the influence of time and historical context upon the explication of successful brand images is identified by Rindell and Iglesias (2014) as critically important in the brand image construction process.

A positive relationship between brand heritage and brand image has also been empirically demonstrated to a limited extent by Wiedmann et al. (2011a) who note a strong positive relationship between brand heritage and brand image in the case of consumer perceptions of the automotive industry. Furthermore, a relationship between brand heritage and brand image is demonstrated through empirical research by Mort et al. (2007) connecting the benefits of a brand heritage to the wider image conveyable by an organisation. A less explicit demonstration of the concept's relationship is shown through brand heritage impacting customer perceived value (CPV) - which is closely aligned with brand image - on four levels: affective, economic, functional and social. On an economic level, CPV is concerned with the risks perceived by consumers in purchasing, owning or using a desired product or service, and is particularly related to economic and monetary aspects (Smith and Colgate 2007; Wuestefeld et al. 2012). The functional dimension is concerned with core benefits provided by the product or service (Sheth et al. 1991). Here, the brand image communicates some of the core offerings, or expectations associated

with the product, service or organisation to the consumer. Affective value is concerned with the emotions and feelings consumers hold towards brands (Sheth et al. 1991; Wuestefeld et al. 2012). These subjective, existential benefits display a congruence of nature with elements of brand heritage and brand image discussed in sections 3.5.2 and 3.8.1 respectively.

Finally, social value aspects of CPV are concerned with the personal meaning ascribed to products, services or organisations by consumers, whereby their association with brands acts as a conduit of expression, adding symbolic meaning to their identity (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982; Holt 1995), thus arousing striking similarities to personal, symbolically influenced associations embedded in discussion of brand image in section 3.8.1. Similarly, both brand heritage and brand image house a shared trust element (Bennett and Gabriel 2003; Saxton 1995). Here, the overall effectiveness of the brand is dependent on fostering trust between consumers, and the organisation (Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Thus, though brand heritage's ability to elicit feelings of trust, we see an additional level of congruence between the concepts.

3.9 Work Engagement

The notion of work engagement is connected to positive psychology studies, which emphasise the importance of people's strengths rather than weaknesses towards increasing fulfilment, as opposed to traditional perspectives focusing on weaknesses, inabilities or deficiencies (Selander 2015; Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi 2000). The increasing popularity of this perspective has stimulated growing attention within the scholarly community regarding engagement (Cooper-Thomas et al. 2014), however, a lack of synthesis (Shuck 2011), and a disparate approach towards development and application of the engagement concept have stimulated criticism and contest regarding its validity (Cole et al. 2012). Despite this, exploration of engagement has continued in multiple fields and in conjunction with other theoretical concepts (Cole et al. 2012; Cooper-Thomas et al. 2014; Vecina et al. 2012). This section first explores the development of competing views of engagement and their criticisms, before assessing its application in the non-profit sector context.

Amongst industry, engagement has been widely mooted as a catalyst for competitive advantage (Rich et al. 2010). Despite this, little is understood regarding the role of engagement within organisations, and the benefits to an organisation it can hold (Rich et

al. 2010). Table 16 illustrates the four most common conceptualisations of engagement, associated seminal research, and their applications in empirical studies.

Table 16: Four Conceptualisations of Engagement

Varying Definitions of Engagement	Seminal Research	Applications
“...the simultaneous employment and expression of a person’s ‘preferred self’ in task behaviours that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence and active full role performances”	Kahn 1990 p. 700	Kahn 1992; May et al. 2004; Rich et al. 2010
“...an individual’s involvement and satisfaction with as well enthusiasm for work...”	Harter et al. 2002 p. 417	Jones and Harter 2005; Luthans and Peterson 2002; Luthans et al. 2008
“...a distinct and unique construct consisting of cognitive, emotional, and behavioural components [...] associated with individual role performance.”	Saks 2006 p. 602)	Britt et al. 2005; Macey and Schneider 2008
“...a persistent positive affective state [...] characterised by high levels of activation and pleasure”	Maslach et al. 2001 p. 417	Lu et al. 2014; Schaufeli et al. 2002; Schaufeli et al. 2006; Vecina et al. 2012; Vecina et al. 2013

Table 16 shows the disparate nature of engagement research, which has contributed to the lack of progress in understanding the phenomenon, each of the four engagement conceptualisations will now be discussed.

3.9.1 Conceptualisations of work engagement

The disparate and extensive literature pertaining to engagement has produced four varying perspectives. Stimulated by Kahn’s (1990) research focusing on a needs-satisfying approach, engagement has also been examined from a satisfaction-engagement perspective (Harter et al. 2002), a multidimensional viewpoint (Saks 2006) and, latterly, as an antithesis to burnout (Maslach et al. 2001).

Grounded upon a catholic literature, Kahn’s (1990) engagement framework incorporates elements of job stress (Thoits 1991), design (Hackman and Oldham 1975), workplace emotions (Hochschild 1979) and social identity theory (Ashforth and Mael 1989). Khan’s (1990) conception of engagement, as a motivational variable is continuum-based with intrinsic and extrinsic poles whereby the extent of an employee’s application of their

full 'self' in work, or indeed engagement, is illustrated. Cognisant of this, Kahn (1990) defines engagement as.

“...the simultaneous employment and expression of a person's 'preferred self' in task behaviours that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence and active full role performances” (Kahn 1990 p. 700).

As well as the application of oneself to work, this conceptualisation of engagement is also influenced by an employee's physical, emotional and cognitive engagement (Kahn 1992; Rich et al. 2010; Shuck 2011) which Kahn (1990) suggests incorporates meaningfulness, safety and availability.

Meaningfulness represents a cyclical concept whereby through adding value and meaning to work undertaken, employees receive information pertaining to that work's significance (Kahn 1990; Shuck 2011). Khan (1990 p. 705) defines meaningfulness positively as a “...sense of return on investments of self in role performance...” In addition to meaningfulness, safety pertains to the ability to show the 'self' without fearing resultant damage to career, image or reputation (Kahn 1990). Thus, safety is concerned with both understanding of what is expected, and employee trust in their work environments, on emotional, behavioural and cognitive levels (Kahn 1990; Rich et al. 2010). Finally, availability pertains to employees having the necessary tools to fulfil their tasks (Kahn 1990; Rich et al. 2010) and is defined as an employee's belief in “...possessing the physical, emotional, and psychological resources necessary...” (1990 p. 705) to that end.

Application of Khan's (1990) conceptualisation of engagement, although limited, has demonstrated the validity of its three constituent elements (May et al. 2004). Latter applications of Khan's (1990) engagement include demonstration of its role as a mediating factor between value congruence, perceived organisational support, core self-evaluation, and outcome variables of task performance and organisational citizenship behaviour (Rich et al. 2010). Despite these applications, Khan's (1990) engagement conceptualisation, in which employee engagement is internally held, but externally affected, has seen only limited application. Consequently, concerns regarding its validity and transferability to different contexts render it unsuitable for the current study.

An alternative engagement conceptualisation is offered by Harter et al. (2002) who, predicated on a positive psychology approach, and utilising a large data set (over 7000 respondents), define engagement as being “...an individual's involvement and satisfaction with as well as enthusiasm for work...” (Harter et al. 2002 p. 417). Application of this approach has served to emphasise the important role of management

in fostering deeper levels of engagement amongst employees through creating positive, supportive psychological work environments (Jones and Harter 2005; Luthans and Peterson 2002; Shuck 2011). Research utilising this engagement approach has continued to bear fruit (Luthans and Peterson 2002; Luthans et al. 2008); however, the concept of engagement is heavily focused on management and negates potentially significant influencers upon employees.

A competing conceptualisation of engagement is the multidimensional approach offered by Saks (2006). The multidimensional approach conceptualises engagement as having two component parts: job engagement and organisational engagement (Saks 2006; Shuck 2011). Defined as being "...a distinct and unique construct consisting of cognitive, emotional, and behavioural components...associated with individual role performance." (Saks 2006 p. 602), the multi-dimensional approach incorporates a wealth of previous engagement literature supporting its cognitive (Kahn 1990; Maslach et al. 2001), emotional (Harter et al. 2002; Kahn 1990) and behavioural (Harter et al. 2002; Kahn 1990; Maslach et al. 2001) elements. Saks' (2006) engagement concept has a demonstrated relationship to both job satisfaction and organisation commitment. Extending Saks' (2006) engagement conceptualisation, Macey and Schneider (2008) argue that the cognitive, emotional and behavioural elements of engagement building upon each other and resulting in a state of absolute engagement has found some support (Christian et al. 2011) but has generally stimulated criticism (Griffin et al. 2008; Hirschfeld and Thomas 2008; Newman and Harrison 2008; Shuck 2011). Despite this, Saks' (2006) multidimensional engagement concept has successfully demonstrated a connection between emotional and psychological engagement and lower levels of stress and fatigue amongst soldiers (Britt et al. 2005).

Finally, Maslach et al. (2001) present engagement from a burnout-antithesis perspective defining the concept as "...a persistent positive affective state [...] characterised by high levels of activation and pleasure" (Maslach et al. 2001 p. 417) where burnout pertains to the breakdown of engagement, and erosion of meaning and challenge derived through work resulting in a lack of fulfilment, displeasure and nugatory work attitudes (Maslach et al. 2001). Indeed, burnout, consisting of three dimensions includes; exhaustion - "...depleted of one's physical resources" (Maslach et al. 2001 p. 399) - cynicism - "...callous or excessively detached response to various aspects of the job" (Maslach et al. 2001 p. 399) - and ineffectiveness, a combination of exhaustion and cynicism resulting in a disinterest in work, low productivity, and feelings of ineptitude (Maslach et al. 2001).

Thus, the constituent elements of burnout contrast with engagement's vigour, absorption and dedication. Here, vigour pertains to energy, endurance and a committed work ethos, absorption denotes employee concentration and well-being, and dedication refers to the level of involvement, pride and enthusiasm towards work despite challenges (Bakker et al. 2008; Vecina et al. 2012). While work engagement from this perspective has been assessed as a variable, subject to daily fluctuation, (Sonnentag 2003; Sonnentag et al. 2010; Xanthopoulou et al. 2009), the notion of engagement as a stable concept, bonded to prevailing job and organisational characteristics has been validated (Macey and Schneider 2008; Schaufeli et al. 2002; Vecina et al. 2012). Critics of work engagement cite its theoretical similarity to concepts such as commitment, burnout, workaholism and job involvement as grounds for its irrelevance (Cole et al. 2012), these arguments are countered, however, through a growing body of evidence (González-Romá et al. 2006; Shuck 2011; Vecina et al. 2012). Furthermore, the theoretical basis upon which engagement is conceptualised as a three factor structure is contested (Cole et al. 2012), with some researchers suggesting that the generally high reported correlation between the three factors is indicative of the presence of one all-encompassing factor (Sonnentag 2003), a position challenged through contradictory evidence for the three factor approach (Hallberg and Schaufeli 2006; Vecina et al. 2012). Furthermore, this engagement perspective benefits from a widely deployed questionnaire scale, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli et al. 2002), which has been successfully used across cultures (Shimazu et al. 2008), in a shortened form (Schaufeli et al. 2006; Vecina et al. 2012).

3.9.2 *Work engagement in the non-profit sector*

Although limited, engagement studies within the non-profit sector literature have a dual focus; tacit exploration of employee engagement within the non-profit sector, and deeper investigation into the engagement of volunteers (Selander 2015; Vecina et al. 2012).

Engagement, with its associated enthusiastic and energy-laden approach to work holds an increased pertinence within the non-profit sector (Selander 2015). Higher levels of work engagement amongst non-profit sector over private-sector employees, demonstrate the concept's salience within a value-driven rather than market-driven sector, in which employees are not merely attracted to work for remuneration, but also likely to select vacancies in harmony with their beliefs and values, thus deepening their engagement (Selander 2015; Mirvis and Hackett 1983). Other factors promoting non-profit sector employee engagement include the greater levels of control typically enjoyed by

employees compared to their private-sector counterparts; however, reduced levels of social support, and unpredictability of workloads negatively affects employee engagement, rendering it a complex, and little understood concept (Selander 2015).

In the case of volunteers, engagement has seen limited application; however, Vecina et al. (2012) find validation for the three factor structure of engagement, finding the concept to hold explanatory power over volunteer satisfaction and a resultant sustainment of volunteer activity. The positive outcomes of engagement include raised productivity, profitability and safer, healthier employees who are more conducive to helping behaviour, less frequently absent and more likely to remain with an organisation (Shuck and Wollard 2010; Vecina et al. 2013), suggesting work engagement is as valuable within the voluntary context as the private sector. Furthermore, the filtration process that results in higher engagement of employees in the non-profit sector than the private-sector is likely to affect volunteers in a similar way. Volunteers holding similar values to the organisation with which they volunteer, can be hypothesised as more deeply engaged; however, more research regarding engagement of volunteers is needed to firmly establish this link. The Utrecht Work Engagement scale represents the only engagement measurement tool to have been successfully deployed within a volunteer context (Vecina et al. 2012).

This study, justified through its prior use in the non-profit sector field, and comparatively wide deployment (Vecina et al. 2012), views engagement from the burnout-antithesis perspective, defined as “...a persistent positive affective state...characterised by high levels of activation and pleasure” (Maslach et al. 2001 p. 417) and consisting of three factors: vigour, dedication and absorption (Vecina et al. 2012). Consequently, through following a similar approach to previous research in the non-profit sector context, this research can test and build upon current understanding.

3.10 Consequences

Following the volunteer process model, the consequence stage is suggested to include volunteer satisfaction with management and volunteer affective commitment. Accordingly, the following sections within the consequence stage now discuss the development, and meaning of these two concepts, in relation to this study.

3.11 Job Satisfaction

This section explores the theoretical underpinnings of the job satisfaction concept and highlights justification for the need to employ bespoke volunteer-oriented measurement approaches in non-traditional work settings (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley 2002; Gidron

1985). The salience of job satisfaction to the non-profit sector is established, before an exploration and evaluation of the various attempts to measure satisfaction in the non-profit sector context is made. This is followed by identification and further justification of the approach used in this study.

3.11.1 *Job satisfaction in paid settings*

In part due to its widely reported influence on outcome variables such as resignation or continuation of employment, along with the lack of one encompassing theoretical framework and a disparate literature, job satisfaction has been the subject of much managerial research (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley 2002; Locke 1970; Mumford 1991; Wilson 2012). Indeed, over 3,500 articles pertaining to job satisfaction have been acknowledged (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley 2002; Spector 1997); consequently, there are multiple established methods of measuring and evaluating job satisfaction in the paid work setting (Mumford 1991; Spector 1997). Satisfaction is broadly defined as “what employees feel about their work” (Brunetto et al. 2012 p. 429) and refers to either positive or negative emotional states (Spector and Fox 2003). Mumford (1991 p. 11) contests most definitions of satisfaction to be vague and lacking in specificity, rendering it a “...nebulous concept.” Nevertheless, satisfaction, and its academic understanding has continued to engage researchers since early investigations by Hoppock (1935).

Traditionally, job satisfaction incorporates:

“...the total body of feelings that an individual has about his job. This total body of feelings involves, in effect, weighing up the sum total of influences on the job; the nature of the job itself, the pay, the promotion prospects, the nature of supervision, and so on. Where the sum total of influences gives rise to feelings of satisfaction the individual is job satisfied, where in total they give rise to feelings of dissatisfaction the individual is job dissatisfied.” (Gruneberg 1976 p. 10)

Within this definition lies a multiplicity of factors, leading to numerous perspectives emerging towards understanding job satisfaction in paid settings. These various schools of thought emphasise particular facets of the job satisfaction concept, and can be divided into psychological needs, leadership, effort-reward, ideology and values, and the content of work emphasis (Mumford 1991). In part, this division has variously constrained and energised satisfaction research. Table 17 below summarises five competing schools of thought regarding satisfaction research.

Table 17: Schools of Thought in Satisfaction Research

Job Satisfaction Perspective	Description	Sources
Psychological Needs	Motivation is viewed as an important precursor to satisfaction, propagated by motivation inducing stimuli such as acknowledgement, success, and responsibility.	Herzberg 1966; Likert 1967; Maslow 1970; Mumford 1991
Effort-Reward	This perspective assumes employees have an innate understanding of what constitutes acceptable pay for fulfilment of particular work; it examines the interplay between pay, overtime and other work rewards.	Gowler and Legge 1970; Lupton and Gowler 1969; Mumford 1991
Leadership	Holds that leadership style and employee monitoring contribute significantly to their satisfaction; consequently investigation is conducted into the leader-subordinate relationship.	Blake and Mouton 1964; Fiedler 1967; Mumford 1991
Management Ideology and Values	This perspective holds management ideology and values, manifested through management behaviours to have significant impact upon job satisfaction. Organisational systems can be organised democratically, punishment-oriented, or symbolically through unapplied bureaucracy, investigating how these value systems affects job satisfaction.	Crozier 2009; Gouldner 1954; Mumford 1991
Work Content and Job Design	Emerging from control theory; emphasises a perceived central importance of work design and structure.	Dunnette et al. 1967; Pasmore et al. 1982; Mumford 1991

As Table 17 shows, there is a breadth of opinion regarding the most effective ways of investigating job satisfaction. Within the schools of thought presented in Table 17 the most vehement job satisfaction debate pertains to Herzberg's two-factor theory (Ewen et al. 1966; Herzberg et al. 1959; Mumford 1991). Herzberg's (1959) theory of job satisfaction suggests that variables can be experienced during work that enhance job satisfaction while having little influence over job dissatisfaction, while other variables affect job dissatisfaction levels but yield little influence over job satisfaction (Ewen et al. 1966; Herzberg et al. 1959). Consequently, Herzberg et al. (1959) contest prevailing

management understanding that each variable exposed to workers could equally influence job satisfaction and dissatisfaction viewable as a continuum (Behling et al. 1968). Subsequent attempts to resolve the debate have tended to further contribute to confusion, with Herzberg et al.'s (1959) theory being both validated and contested in numerous subsequent studies (Behling et al. 1968; Ewen et al. 1966), and branded as a grossly simplistic conceptualisation of a necessarily more multi-dimensional phenomenon (Dunnette et al. 1967). More holistic views have since been offered; Mumford (1991 p. 19) suggests job satisfaction theory should be developed that "...considers employee needs in conjunction with the needs of the employing organisation.", despite efforts to organise, and focus job satisfaction research, the plethora of continuing studies holding varying perspectives and definitions of job satisfaction attest to a failure to do so (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzey 2002; Spector 1997).

Approaches to measuring job satisfaction are similarly diverse (Spector 1997; Galindo-Kuhn and Guzey 2002). Job Description Index (JDI) and the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) are the two most prevalent and established measures. Both measures view job satisfaction as a multi-dimensional concept, signifying a shift towards this perspective within the literature (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzey 2002). The JDI holds jobs satisfaction to consist of five experiential elements: colleagues, management, promotion prospects, remuneration and the work itself (Smith et al. 1969; Spector 1997). The later emerging JDS, developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975), also takes a multi-dimensional perspective of job satisfaction in congruence with the JDI, also incorporating five dimensions; however while two dimensions are the same (remuneration and management) three are different (development, social, and job security).

Subsequent augmentation and disregard of these measurement approaches has manifested in job satisfaction research; nevertheless, researchers have argued for the need to substantially reconsider the concept and measurement of job satisfaction in non-traditional work environments (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzey 2002). In situations of increased human to human interaction, for example social services or frontline medical services, job satisfaction is argued to stem from an innate, intrinsic emotional connection between employees and their job (Williamson 1996), consequently reducing the power of remuneration in determining satisfaction, and significantly altering the environment within which job satisfaction would typically be generated (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzey 2002; Williamson 1996). Accepting this, measurement scales for non-traditional work settings have been developed (Spector 1985; Williamson 1996). Increasing awareness of

the need to incorporate sectorial and industrial specificities into job satisfaction measurement has contributed to a growing effort to apply job satisfaction to a volunteer setting while maintaining its relevance as a concept (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley 2002). Highlighted by the previous discussion, the unsuitability of using measures determining job satisfaction amongst paid employees to establish satisfaction levels of volunteers predicated upon the particularities of paid employment as opposed to freely given time is established (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley 2002; Gidron 1985). Consequently, satisfaction is now discussed as it relates to research positioned in the non-profit context.

3.11.2 Job satisfaction in the non-profit sector

The management environment within which voluntary action occurs, and consequent volunteer satisfaction towards this, holds influence over both satisfaction levels and their decisions to continue volunteering (Tang et al. 2010; Wilson 2012). Thus, the need for a distinctive approach to understanding satisfaction of volunteers is evidenced through their work environments' deviance from paid-work norms, where examples include the likely personal connections developed in relation to their volunteer work, its lack of remuneration, limited job security and, often, scant opportunities for promotion, compounded by an increased likelihood of no contractual obligations on both parties arguably elevates satisfaction's importance in the volunteer setting (Boezeman and Ellemers 2009; Johns 2006; Pearce 1993). Towards enhancing satisfaction, volunteer experiences can be augmented through management practises such as communication methods, training, transparency of selection methods, and supervision approaches (Cnaan and Cascio 1998; Lee 2016). Indeed, volunteering with the supervision of professionals has been shown to significantly increase volunteer satisfaction levels, suggesting there is much non-profit sector organisations can do to increase satisfaction amongst their volunteers. However, in addition to the management environment, demographic variables have also been shown to influence satisfaction amongst volunteers. In a study investigating volunteer satisfaction and burnout Kulik (2007a p. 252) notes:

“...high expectations of volunteering that develop among educated individuals can generate frustration and reduce their satisfaction.”

Further to education influencing satisfaction of volunteers, increased age was also related to higher levels of volunteer satisfaction (Kulik 2007a). Nevertheless, research is generally supportive of the notion that a substantial element of volunteer satisfaction is attributable to factors within the control of management (Kulik 2007a; Skoglund 2006; Wilson 2012), in congruence with findings from Hustinx (2010 p. 251) noting that

decisions to quit volunteering generally “...had very emotional grounds rooted in the volunteers’ experiences within a particular organisational setting” such as perceptions of being valued, acceptance within other volunteer social groups and relationships with supervising staff or volunteers.

Having established the importance of volunteer satisfaction to non-profit sector organisations, a conveyance of the components of volunteer satisfaction is now attempted although hampered by the vast, diffuse, and partially incongruent literature (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley 2002; Lee 2016; Vecina et al. 2012). Table 18 highlights a sample of attempts to measure volunteer satisfaction, and identifies the satisfaction dimensions and measurement approach applied, along with the volunteer context and related theoretical concepts.

Table 18: Volunteer Satisfaction Research

Context	Satisfaction Dimensions	Measurement Approach	Related Concepts	Source
Social and Care Volunteers	Volunteer experience	8 Question scale	Commitment and Performance	Cnaan and Cascio 1998
Social and Care Volunteers	Volunteer task satisfaction	1 Question Scale	Burnout and Length of Service	Yiu et al. 2001
Social and Care Volunteers	Management, tasks, and motivation.	7 Items pertaining to management satisfaction, 4 items pertaining to task satisfaction, and 6 items regarding satisfaction of motivations.	Engagement and Commitment	Vecina et al. 2012
Social Volunteers	General Satisfaction	2 Question Scale	Job Characteristics, motivations and intention to quit	Millette and Gagné 2008
Public Volunteers	Work satisfaction, facilities, management and satisfaction with co-volunteers	Interviews	Motivations	Sherer 2004
Hospice Volunteers	Volunteer experience	5 Question Scale	Motives, motive fulfilment, time spent volunteering.	Finkelstein 2008
Senior Volunteers	Work satisfaction	1 Question Scale	Motive Fulfilment	Cheung et al. 2006
Recreation Volunteers	Communication effectiveness, empowerment and group integration	39 Question Scale	Intention to remain	Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley 2002
Public and Recreational Volunteers	Task satisfaction, rewards, monitoring, operational practises, communication and colleagues	36 Questions Employee Job Satisfaction Scale	Job setting and psychological motivations.	Silverberg et al. 2001
Sport Volunteers	Experience, administration of event, and facilities	24 Question Scale	Volunteer Motivations	Farrell et al. 1998
adolescent Volunteers	Satisfaction with volunteer experience	A reduced eight item version of the Job Satisfaction Scale	Satisfaction, perceived contribution, and burnout	Kulik 2007b
Various	Satisfaction with general volunteer experience	1 Question Scale	Motivations, motive fulfilment, intention to remain.	Stukas et al. 2009

Thus, Table 18 illustrates the lack of consensus regarding volunteer satisfaction, whereby its measurement has been attempted with general volunteer experiences, perceptions of management, satiation of motivations, work and tasks. To offer clarity of the volunteer satisfaction concept as applied in this study, its various facets will now be considered.

Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2002) suggest volunteer satisfaction consists of five elements: communication effectiveness, assigned work, participation efficacy, support for volunteers, and integration. Communication effectiveness pertains to all communications from the non-profit organisation to their volunteers, incorporating variously: communication flow, quality of information given, and recognition and feedback of volunteers (Cyr and Dowrick 1991; Field and Johnson 1993; Stevens 1991). Communication flow pertains to the volume of information communicated to volunteers, to which studies suggest the provision of more information is related to heightened volunteer job satisfaction and commitment to the voluntary organisation (Cyr and Dowrick 1991; Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley 2002; Knoke 1981). The information influence is initiated even before the volunteer is recruited, through job description and recruitment literature, and especially its subsequent accuracy (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley 2002; Stevens 1991); indeed, inaccurate information communicated to volunteers is likely to increase their dissatisfaction with volunteering (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley 2002; Wharton 1991). The importance of regular, constructive feedback to volunteers along with recognition for their efforts also contributes to their job satisfaction (Cyr and Dowrick 1991). In particular, less formal face to face recognition as opposed to publicly visible gestures of thanks are more effective in the volunteer context, reinforcing the notion that volunteer satisfaction is affected by the personal emotional connection between the volunteer, and their volunteering role (Field and Johnson 1993; Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley 2002; Stevens 1991).

A main factor rendering assigned work an important contributor to volunteer satisfaction (Gidron 1985; van Schie et al. 2013) is the fit between the volunteer and the role they are expected to fulfil, where the possession of relevant skills and conducting volunteer work at times convenient to the volunteer have been shown to enhance their satisfaction (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley 2002; Gidron 1985; Miller et al. 1990). Research is generally supportive of non-profit organisations being careful in their allocation of tasks to volunteers, and notes the potential to create dissatisfaction where volunteers find themselves performing roles they are neither equipped to carry-out effectively, nor those

which they did not explicitly agree to fulfil in advance (Miller et al. 1990; Millette and Gagné 2008; van Schie et al. 2013).

Participation efficacy represents the desire for volunteers to carry out work that benefits others; a strong body of evidence suggests this dimension strongly affects consequent volunteer satisfaction (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley 2002; Gidron 1985; Miller et al. 1990; Vecina et al. 2012). Inherent in the altruistic element of volunteering, the extent of participation efficacy required to positively contribute to satisfaction is likely to vary between volunteers, predicated upon their differing motivational makeup (Clary et al. 1996).

Support and assistance for volunteers manifests as the provision of both mental, and physical resources (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley 2002), the reception of which has been demonstrated to promote satisfaction amongst volunteers (Cyr and Dowrick 1991; Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley 2002; Gidron 1985). Mental support in the form of creating a supportive environment, offering help and emotional care holds influence over volunteer satisfaction (Cyr and Dowrick 1991); additionally, prolonged and varied training provision has been explicitly linked to increased satisfaction, suggesting volunteers approach their volunteer roles with a similar conscientious spirit displayed in private sector training (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley 2002; Ozminkowski et al. 1990)

The extent of integration amongst a cohort of volunteers and consequent social interaction has been linked to levels of volunteer satisfaction (Boz and Palaz 2007; Cyr and Dowrick 1991; Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley 2002; Stevens 1991), and complements arguments relating to *communitas* amongst volunteers discussed in section 3.7.3; consistently, volunteer research is supportive of the notion that volunteers enjoy, and often expect, a social element to their work and are, consequently, more satisfied (Dury et al. 2014; Peachey et al. 2013; Thompson et al. 2017). Strongly linked to the continuance of volunteering activity, volunteer satisfaction is an important measure in volunteering research (Vecina et al. 2012). Having established salience of job satisfaction to volunteers, and its constituent elements, the operationalisation of volunteer satisfaction for this study is now discussed.

3.11.3 *Operationalising volunteer satisfaction*

As Table 19 demonstrates, there have been numerous attempts to measure volunteer satisfaction, with no clearly dominant measure emerging (Vecina et al. 2012; Wilson 2012). This study develops Vecina et al.'s (2012) understanding of satisfaction and engagement affecting volunteers; consequently, satisfaction is measured using the same

approach. Justifying this decision is the crossover between Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley's (2002) description of volunteer satisfaction dimensions and the items included in Vecina et al.'s (2012) measurement, presented in Table 19 below.

Table 19: Satisfaction Conceptualizations Crossover

VSI Dimension (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley 2002)	Alternative Volunteer Satisfaction Scale (Vecina et al. 2012)	Areas of Crossover
Communication effectiveness	I am satisfied because the tasks which I regularly carry out have clearly-defined objectives. I am satisfied with overall management of the Scouts.	Crossover between the communication effectiveness themes and items is evident in the satisfaction items. Effective communications begin at volunteer recruitment.
Assigned work	Allows me to learn new and interesting things. I can tell while I am performing my volunteer tasks whether I am doing them well. I am satisfied with the interest shown by the Scouts to adjust/fit my motivations, preferences, abilities and capacities with the available volunteer positions.	The tasks assigned to volunteers play a significant role in determining their outcome satisfaction, both measures of volunteer account for this.
Participation efficacy	Allows me to forget my problems. Makes me feel good and raises my self-esteem. I am satisfied with the efficiency with which I perform the tasks I am given. The volunteer tasks that I perform are very useful. I am satisfied with the recognition of the role of volunteerism in the Scouts. My volunteer tasks are meaningful and a significant part of something worthwhile.	Participation efficacy refers to the feeling that volunteering is having a genuine impact, both measures account for this.
Support for volunteers	Allows me to express the values that are important for me. I am satisfied with the way the Scouts manage volunteerism Provides me with the necessary training and experience to be a good professional. I am satisfied with the fluidity and frequency of communications between volunteers and professionals. I am satisfied with the current mechanisms to solve problems the volunteers might encounter when carrying out their tasks. I am satisfied with the training provided to improve my volunteer work.	Ensuring volunteers are adequately supported in their roles holds strong influence over consequent satisfaction, both measures incorporate this dimension.
Integration	Allows me to establish social relations with other people. I am satisfied with the friendly relations I have within the Scouts.	The social element of volunteering is well established in the literature Both measures.

Reflecting on Table 19, significant crossover is evident between the two measurement approaches. Accordingly, determining the most appropriate and effective measure becomes problematic. In this instance, predicated on a stronger established link to volunteer work engagement and volunteer motivations, volunteer satisfaction is measured using the approach applied by Vecina et al. (2012).

Unlike previous investigation of volunteer satisfaction in the non-profit sector, this study omits the task, and motivational satisfaction elements of Vecina et al.'s (2013) satisfaction measure. This was deemed necessary for two principal reasons. First, in empirical research, volunteers who exhibit strong satisfaction with their management have generally also been satisfied with the tasks managers assign them to, and are also usually satisfied with the extent their functional motivations to volunteer have been satiated (Vecina et al. 2013). Thus, this study deems the inclusion of task, and motivation fulfilment elements of satisfaction unnecessary. Furthermore, as explained in section 4.6, questionnaire length can negatively affect the willingness of respondents, and the quality of their responses (Deutschens et al. 2004). Thus, this research takes a pragmatic approach, concluding that the benefits of including the additional satisfaction dimensions do not out-weigh the disadvantages of their exclusion.

3.12 Organisational Commitment

Commitment in the context of organisations usually relates to an employee's level of identification with their host organisation, and the extent to which that employee will seek to maintain, and dedicate their energy to sustaining, that relationship (Steers 1977). Investigation of commitment has previously been most thoroughly conducted and traditionally housed within the field of psychology although, recently, commitment theory has received interest from management scholars increasingly concerned with exploring and understanding its effect in for-profit and non-profit organisational settings (Dailey 1986; Sargeant and Lee 2004a; Vecina et al. 2013). Investigation of the commitment concept has, generally, developed with focus on organisational commitment in tandem with numerous other concepts, where commitment is often used as an indicator, or demarcation of successful outcomes (Dailey 1986; Mowday et al. 1979; Srivastava 2013). Development and empirical validation of organisational commitment theory is increasingly well established, with the concept regularly identified as an important indicator towards understanding employee work and behaviour (Buchanan 1974; Mowday et al. 1979; Sheldon 1971; Stride and Higgs 2013).

Commitment, which is indicative of employee retention (Meyer and Allen 1997; Panaccio et al. 2014), performance (Packard 2010; Stride and Higgs 2013), employee general well-being (Meyer et al. 2002) and organisational support (Moideenkutty et al. 2001), represents a valuable asset to organisations; although early research assumed organisational commitment to be akin to organisational identification (Buchanan 1974; Hall et al. 1970; Ohana et al. 2013). Meyer and Allen's (1984) originally two, and subsequently three-factor (Allen and Meyer 1990; Meyer et al. 1993) conceptualisation of commitment has emerged as a dominant, effective, and robust approach which views commitment as a multi-dimensional concept (Meyer et al. 2002).

Early definitions of commitment catered to varying influences and research perspectives (Meyer et al. 2002). For example, Kanter (1968 p. 507) suggests commitment is "The attachment of an individual's fund of affectivity to the group", emphasising the affective element, whereas Becker (1960 p. 32) argues from the perspective of cost-based analysis commitment "... comes into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activities". A definition from an obligatory perspective is offered by Wiener (1982 p. 421) who notes commitment to be "...the totality of internalised normative pressures to act in a way which meets organisational goals and interests." Meyer and Allen (1997) note how the varying perspectives emerging in early commitment research were synthesised to underpin the three factor commitment concept which incorporates affective, normative, and continuance as the components of commitment (Meyer et al. 2002), which lie within the broader definition of commitment:

"...the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Mowday et al. 1979 p. 226).

Developing a more revelatory definition, Allen and Meyer (1990 p. 1) define the three commitment factors as:

"The *affective* component of organisation commitment [...] refers to employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in, the organisation. The *continuance* component refers to commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organisation. Finally, the *normative* component refers to the employee's feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation."

Within this definition, affective, normative and continuance commitment, their antecedents, significance and interplay will now be discussed.

3.12.1 *Affective commitment*

Pertaining to the extent of emotional connection between organisation and employee, affective commitment includes both the product of employee-organisation identity fusion (Dawley et al. 2005; Sheldon 1971), as well as more general objective feelings of connection towards an employing organisation (Buchanan 1974; Dawley et al. 2005). Furthermore, affective commitment can be viewed as an individual's desire to support the organisation with which they identify (Allen and Meyer 1990; Park and Kim 2013).

Stimulators of affective commitment development can be categorised as structural, personal and work experience characteristics (Dunham et al. 1994; Meyer and Allen 1991), leading some scholars to label affective commitment "...the most crucial organisational commitment" (Park and Kim 2013 p. 102). Structural characteristics relate to the systems and processes within the organisation, for example, the sophistication of its bureaucracy and decision-making processes (Brooke et al. 1988; Meyer and Allen 1991; Morris and Steers 1980). Additionally, the perception of management influence the employee holds has been suggested to indicate affective commitment (Dunham et al. 1994). Attributable to varying personal characteristics held by employees, research shows them to differ in their affective commitment levels (Meyer and Allen 1991; Mowday et al. 1979). Indeed, various personal characteristics and dispositions including work ethic, desire for achievement and autonomy (Meyer and Allen 1991; Morris and Snyder 1979; Steers 1977) have been shown to influence, to varying extents, employee commitment.

Affective commitment's relation to work experience characteristics is also evidenced by research (Dunham et al. 1994; Meyer and Allen 1991). Meyer and Allen (1991 p. 70) describe how commitment "...develops as the result of experiences that satisfy employees' needs and/or are compatible with their values" and note there are two ways in which work experiences can influence work commitment: variables that facilitate feelings of physical and mental comfort amongst employees, and those which propagate feelings of effectiveness and command of the requirements of work related tasks (Meyer and Allen 1991).

3.12.2 *Normative commitment*

Encapsulating notions of loyalty and perceptions of obligation to an organisation, normative commitment is governed by both internal and external, organisationally-driven forces (Allen and Meyer 1990; Dawley et al. 2005; Meyer and Allen 1997).

Internally for an individual, normative commitment is influenced by preconceived notions, held before commencement of activity with an organisation and formed through family and cultural backgrounds (Dawley et al. 2005; Meyer et al. 1993), and characterised by Wiener (1982) who described its occurrence as "...not because they have figured that doing so is to their personal benefit, but because they believe that it is the 'right' and moral thing to do" (p. 421).

External to an individual, commitment drivers include the extent of socialisation within an organisation, determined largely by makeup of the organisational environment, its processes, values, ethos and other employees (Dawley et al. 2005). Additionally, situations where an organisation incurs up-front costs such as expensive training or provision of relocation assistance, can lead employees to feel obliged to remain with an organisation for a certain amount of time, generating normative commitment until the debt is perceived cleared (Meyer and Allen 1991; Scholl 1981).

3.12.3 *Continuance commitment*

Influenced by its conceptual ancestor, side-bet theory (Becker 1960; Dawley et al. 2005), continuance commitment refers to the calculative judgements made by individuals whereby the accumulation of pension provision and status, for example, serve to influence their decisions to continue with an organisation.

Empirically, the continuance commitment factor has been variously contested (McGee and Ford 1987) and justified (Allen and Meyer 1990; Dawley et al. 2005; Dunham et al. 1994) although debate continues regarding whether it should consist of the additionally distinct measures of personal sacrifice and the absence of alternative options (McGee and Ford 1987). Nevertheless, continuance commitment in its present form has been widely and successfully deployed. Predicated on continuance commitment reflecting a cost-benefit analysis, variables contributing to perceptions of increased cost are considered antecedents. However, there is a lack of consistent research results to support identification of the most salient variables, likely due to the personal nature of such calculative assessments (Meyer and Allen 1991).

3.12.4 *Application of organisational commitment*

Boezeman and Ellemers (2007) identify three commitment related trends within the literature: affective commitment is mostly associated with attendance and job performance, whereas continuance commitment, despite linking individuals to organisations, can manifest negatively through work behaviours. Finally they suggest

normative commitment to hold a generally weaker association than affective commitment in profit-oriented organisations.

While the above elements constitute a widely accepted notion of commitment, these components are held to be conceptually independent, relating to different concepts, and manifesting in different ways (Allen and Meyer 1990; Lambert et al. 2008; Park and Kim 2013). For example, continuance and affective commitment have exhibited both positive and negative relationships respectively towards job performance (Meyer et al. 1989). Additional research impresses further import upon accounting for the distinctiveness of the commitment elements, which has demonstrated varying strengths of relationship between affective and normative commitment (Dawley et al. 2005; Meyer et al. 2002), leading Park and Kim (2013) to call on researchers to investigate, with caution, commitment conceptualised as three distinct elements.

Despite considerable research attention leading to commitment being labelled as a “mature construct” (Morrow 2011 p. 19), little is understood about encouraging the enhancement of commitment levels within organisations (Morrow 2011). While scholars have identified some antecedents, and correlates of commitment, further investigation is required to progress understanding of the causal factors of commitment, demanding its incorporation into this study; consequently, commitment research specifically within the non-profit sector will now be explored.

3.12.5 Organisational commitment in the non-profit sector

Within the voluntary sector, the commitment concept has developed since being introduced by Dailey (1986); it has been explored in conjunction with concepts such as satisfaction, engagement (Vecina et al. 2013), and motivations (Stride and Higgs 2013). Indeed, Wilson (2012 p. 195) notes “The principal function of the volunteer role is to inspire effort and commitment while at the same time limiting compassion”, highlighting the increasing importance being ascribed to understanding the essence of commitment and how to maximise the concept. Unfortunately, there has been a somewhat sporadic, inconsistent approach to investigating and measuring commitment, resulting in, from an academic perspective, limited certainty regarding our underpinning knowledge (Dawley et al. 2005).

Organisational commitment appears to be of salient importance to the non-profit sector, in part due to its unique power over volunteers (Boezeman and Ellemers 2007; Dailey 1986; Packard 2010), and manifesting through its ability to wield power where material rewards are not forthcoming (Boezeman and Ellemers 2007; Ellemers et al. 1998).

Indeed, affective commitment has been suggested to hold particular influence over volunteers due to the elevated importance of congruence between volunteers and organisational values (Clary et al. 1998; Park and Kim 2013). Accordingly, organisational commitment has regularly been shown to influence volunteer intentions to remain or leave volunteering posts (Boezeman and Ellemers 2007; Jenner 1984; Miller et al. 1990). Jenner (1981) notes a positive association between organisational commitment and volunteers remaining in voluntary roles. Furthermore, Miller, Powell, and Seltzer (1990) support previous findings, noting elevated commitment to be connected to hospital volunteers continuing in their roles.

The three-factor structure of commitment has been variously applied (Dawley et al. 2005), contested (Boezeman and Ellemers 2007) and expanded upon (Park and Kim 2013) in the volunteer context. Tellingly, Boezeman and Ellemers (2007) suggest the commitment concept functions differently amongst particular groups of volunteers, for example, sports, hospital, or volunteer board members. Additional commitment research conducted within the non-profit sector investigated the impact of perceptions of organisational values on volunteer commitment; unlike similar studies in the for-profit sector, findings were inconclusive (Stride and Higgs 2013). However, it should be noted that in their study, Stride and Higgs (2013) measured only the affective element of commitment. Vecina et al. (2012), in a study of Spanish and internationally operating non-profit sector volunteers, find commitment, based on an emotionally emphasising conceptualisation (Mowday et al. 1979), to be heavily influenced by engagement levels of volunteers, furthermore, they also note commitment to be a significant determinant of intention to continue volunteering.

The continuance element of commitment was argued to be irrelevant in a study examining differences between paid staff and volunteers in a hospital setting (Liao-Troth 2001). In the sports setting, volunteer commitment has been investigated through a five-element conceptualisation of commitment, where Park and Kim (2013) contest the need for both external, and primitive commitment types to be included in subsequent related research. External commitment is described as “situated between continuance commitment and normative commitment” (Park and Kim 2013 p. 100) while primitive commitment is noted to be “...when individuals accept social influence to receive a favourable reward or avoid punishment” (Park and Kim 2013 pp. 98-99). The fluid nature of commitment, and a lack of consistent research focusing on either one of the various conceptualisations increases the need for more investigation.

Mired within a conflicting evidence base, and having been described as contextually sensitive, Boezeman and Ellemers (2007) call for further research towards understanding how organisational commitment, as described by Allen and Meyer (1990) manifests within the non-profit sector and its sub-fields, for example in sport (Park and Kim 2013), and museum volunteers (Chen and Yu 2014). Cognisant of this, this research seeks to explore commitment in a less investigated context (volunteering) and investigate its relationships with brand heritage, brand image, *communitas*, and volunteer work engagement concepts.

3.12.6 *Operationalising affective commitment*

The various commitment components (affective, normative, and continuance) outlined above are of differing relevance to the non-profit sector (Bang et al. 2012; Dawley et al. 2005). Consequently, this study focuses specifically on affective commitment, an approach justified through its arguably higher salience to the non-profit sector than normative, and continuance commitment types (Dawley et al. 2005; Stride and Higgs 2013), its stronger empirical underpinning (Gatignon-Turnau and Mignonac 2015; Hager 2014; Meyer and Allen 1997; Stride and Higgs 2013), and its elevated pertinence to the theoretical components of this research.

In the context of volunteers, the relevance of normative and continuance commitment has been questioned (Bang et al. 2012; Stride and Higgs 2013). For example, normative commitment can also be argued to be of reduced relevance to the investigation of volunteers in the non-profit sector (Bang et al. 2012). Pertaining to the extent individuals feel obligated to remain committed to an organisation (Meyer and Allen 1991), volunteers' attitudes to remaining committed to an organisation have been shown to be broadly explained through their levels of affective commitment (Bang et al. 2012; Meyer and Allen 1991; Stride and Higgs 2013), thus negating the need for an independent measure of normative commitment. Furthermore, as with continuance commitment, the volitional nature of volunteering, coupled with the complexity of volunteer-host organisation relationships raises questions regarding the value, and accuracy with which the originally for-profit normative commitment component can be measured (Bang et al. 2012). Theoretically, normative commitment has been shown to have weaker association with a range of variables including organisational support and volunteer experiences when compared to affective commitment (Bang et al. 2012; Meyer et al. 2002; Stride and Higgs 2013); consequently, normative commitment is not included in this study.

As with normative commitment, continuance commitment is suggested to hold less pertinence to evaluating commitment amongst volunteers, as it is guided by a personal cost-benefit analysis made on the part of an individual, thus, although volunteer motivations are known to include both altruistic, and egoistic elements, Meyer and Allen (1997) conceptualise their measure of continuance commitment in relation to traditional for-profit sector rewards, e.g., pension provision. Thus raising questions regarding its usefulness in the non-profit context where tangible benefits such as pensions are not available to volunteers (Bang et al. 2012; Stride and Higgs 2013) and different factors, more closely associated to volunteers' decisions to continue volunteering (e.g., social opportunities and value-congruence) have been suggested to influence volunteer decisions to continue (Harbert 2012; Musick and Wilson 2008). More generally, empirical applications of continuance commitment are less conclusive regarding the validity of continuance commitment, offering stronger support for the affective commitment component (Bang et al. 2012; Meyer and Allen 1991; Stride and Higgs 2013).

Unlike the normative and continuance components of commitment, affective commitment, which focuses on the extent of emotional attachment between an individual and their organisation has been shown to be particularly appropriate for the non-profit sector, and specifically useful in understanding commitment amongst volunteers (Bang et al. 2012; Gatignon-Turnau and Mignonac 2015; Stride and Higgs 2013). For example, affective commitment has been shown to be related to volunteer perceptions of organisational support and the values perceived by an individual as being held by an organisation (Gatignon-Turnau and Mignonac 2015), as well as volunteer self-esteem (McCormick and Donohue 2016) and non-profit trustee performance (Preston and Brown 2004). Thus, given affective commitment's more extensive application in volunteer research settings (Bang et al. 2012; Stride and Higgs 2013), and its demonstrated relationship to antecedents relevant to this research (Meyer et al. 2002), as well as the availability of a reliable, widely applied measurement tool (Stride and Higgs 2013; Meyer et al. 2002), affective commitment was deemed most appropriate for this study.

3.12.7 *Affective commitment and satisfaction with management*

Commitment satisfaction literature views both concepts broadly, but also includes particular examination of their constituent components (Lee 2016; Meyer et al. 2002; Stride and Higgs 2013; Wanous and Reichers 1997). As elements of both concepts are

inherent in much of the more broadly conceptualised investigations of commitment and satisfaction, both perspectives are utilised in justifying this relationship.

Commitment is argued to deviate from job satisfaction (Meyer et al. 2002; Mowday et al. 1979). Where job satisfaction pertains to feelings associated with a particular job, and the environment where that occurs, commitment is more generally concerned with feelings towards a managing organisation as a whole, including its culture and values. Furthermore, it is argued that commitment levels are less vulnerable to fluctuation, than job satisfaction (Meyer et al. 2002; Mowday et al. 1979). Satisfaction, influenced by daily experiences and contact with management and tasks, represents a more volatile measure of attitude than more gradually forming feelings of commitment towards an organisation (Mowday et al. 1979). Nevertheless, there is a strong base of evidence demonstrating a relationship between commitment and satisfaction (Lum et al. 1998; Williams and Hazer 1986).

An area of contention within the literature concerns determining whether commitment is a predictor of satisfaction or the relationship is inverted as evidenced through studies suggesting satisfaction is the predictor (Porter et al. 1974) and, conversely, findings indicating commitment holds the predictive role (Bateman and Strasser 1984). Regardless of the predictor debate, various further studies support the relationship between these concepts. For example, research investigating nurses' decisions to remain in their jobs has linked increased satisfaction with elevated levels of commitment (Lum et al. 1998). Indeed, in a study of social work volunteers, the relationship between satisfaction and organisational commitment is described as "...extensively studied, within Organisational Psychology, as an essential variable related to employees' satisfaction and organisational efficacy" (Chacón 2007 p. 629), subsequently confirming this relationship in the study with strong results. Predicated upon these results, satisfaction is expected to exhibit a strong relationship upon organisational commitment in this study.

3.13 Hypothesis Development

This section builds on the preceding literature review to generate and justify the hypotheses tested in this study.

3.13.1 Brand Heritage and Communitas

The preceding sections suggest branding can enable volunteers to effectively align their values with the organisations they opt to support (Kylander and Stone 2012; Wiedmann et al. 2011a), thus communitas experiences are suggested to become more likely to occur where individuals align themselves with similar brands, indicating a greater likelihood

that they may share common interests. Furthermore, through its emphasis that belief in an organisation's history is important, a strong brand heritage could help enhance common connections, increasing feelings of togetherness and, subsequently, levels of *communitas* among volunteers (McGinnis et al. 2012; Wiedmann et al. 2011a). While empirical literature suggesting that branding impacts upon *communitas* is absent, research has been conducted in settings that would be influenced by branding to some extent, including: white-water rafting (Arnould and Price 1993), golf associations (McGinnis et al. 2008), and heritage railway organisations (Wallace 2006). Consequently, this research hypothesises:

H1: Brand heritage has a positive relationship with *communitas*

3.13.2 Brand heritage and work engagement

Explicit empirical support establishing a relationship between brand heritage (see section 3.5) and work engagement (see section 3.9) is lacking in the literature; however, support for this relationship can be inferred through close examination of three components: vigour, dedication, and absorption, which research intimates have a positive relationship with brand heritage (Mort et al. 2007; Vecina et al. 2012; Wiedmann et al. 2011a; Wuestefeld et al. 2012).

The exhibition of vigorous work attitudes represents one element of work engagement adoptable by volunteers which positively influences subsequent satisfaction and turnover intentions (Vecina et al. 2012). Thus, literature highlighting antecedents attributable to brand heritage facilitating the adoption of a vigorous approach to work suggest a positive relationship. For example, literature attests to the benefits of complementarity and congruence between an individual and their host organisation's values and principles (Kylander and Stone 2012; Rich et al. 2010). Thus volunteers who identify strongly with their host organisation's beliefs, values, and mission, are likely to adopt a more vigorous working approach when volunteering with that organisation, exhibiting a vigorous effort to help it realise its goals (Mort et al. 2007; Schultz 2001; Wiedmann et al. 2011b). Furthermore, brand heritage is suggested to contribute to fostering feelings of trust, reassurance, and security between individuals and their decisions to involve themselves with an organisation (Hakala et al. 2011; Mort et al. 2007; Wiedman et al. 2011a), such feelings could engender high levels of perceived organisational support, which is suggested to contribute to deepening levels of engagement, and likely absorption (Rich et al. 2010; Saks 2006; Selander 2015).

Representing another component of work engagement, dedication connotes the lengths to which an individual is prepared to go when undertaking activities for an organisation, their inherent pride, and sense of importance attached to their assigned duties (Selander 2015; Vecina et al. 2012). Given brand heritage's ability to extol notions of pride and prestige amongst individuals (Hakala et al. 2011; Schultz 2001; Wiedmann et al. 2011a), the complementarity of these concepts suggests they are likely to contribute to strengthening dedication (González-Romá et al. 2006; Selander 2015). Indeed, a broader understanding of heritage has also been suggested to promote engagement enhancing trust, and possibly contributing to strengthening dedication (Gilmore and Pine 2007; Uslaner and Brown 2005; Wang and Hsieh 2013). Additionally, Liu et al. (2013) argue brands can generate strong emotional connections between individuals and their host organisation, further strengthening the argument that brand heritage can positively affect volunteer dedication.

The absorption element of work engagement represents a state of deep mental immersion in which an individual may become wholly focused on the task at hand (Schaufeli et al. 2002; Selander 2015; Vecina et al. 2012). Supporting the relationship between brand heritage and engagement, research intimates that outcomes of brand heritage enhance absorption levels (Kylander and Stone 2012; Saks 2006; Selander 2015). For example, through stimulating trust, brand heritage is likely to facilitate longer-term relationships between individuals and organisations, potentially contributing to the manifestation of absorptive experiences (Selander 2015; Wiedmann et al. 2011a) following a similar precedent where perceived organisational support is shown to contribute positively to an individual's engagement (Saks 2006). Logically, the literature also intimates where there is clearly delineated, and communicated (via brand heritage) value congruence between an individual and host organisation, a more intense level of immersion and absorption can prospectively be achieved (Farmer and Fedor 2001; Kylander and Stone 2012; Musick and Wilson 2008; Shantz et al. 2014). Furthermore, research notes how concepts closely related to *communitas* such as flow, can contribute to fostering near absorptive states amongst individuals (McGinnis et al. 2008; Taheri et al. 2016). Flow is defined as “a centring of attention, a loss of self, a feeling of being in control of self and the environment” (Belk et al. 1989 p. 8), sharing conceptual similarity to absorption. Thus, given the relationship of flow with *communitas* and the overlap in outcome between *communitas* and the brand heritage (e.g., intense trust and camaraderie (McGinnis et al.

2008; Schultz 2001; Turner 1969; Wiedmann et al. 2011a)) it can deliver, a relationship between brand heritage towards engagement is likely.

Consequently, hypothesis 2 is presented:

H2: Brand heritage has a positive relationship with volunteer work engagement

3.13.3 Brand heritage and affective commitment

Despite being described as the “the linking glue” (Ardelet et al. 2015 p. 2), which enhances an individual’s ability to evaluate experiences involving an organisation, previous research has generally overlooked empirical investigation regarding brand heritage (a series of narratives relating to an organisation’s brand (Ardelet et al. 2015)) and its relationship with affective commitment (the emotional bond between an individual and an organisation (Meyer et al. 2002)), which has been suggested to improve volunteer retention rates, and constitute a feature of positive, and well-received volunteering programmes (Bang et al. 2012; Vecina et al. 2013). Indeed, noting the paucity of brand heritage research Rose et al. (2016 p. 936) observe “the quantitative investigation of brand heritage and its consequences, however, remains largely unaddressed”, emphasising the need for additional research in this area. Nevertheless, the extant literature does offer evidence derived through limited examples of investigation of both brand heritage and affective commitment (Rose et al. 2016), and in relation to comparable and related concepts, through which support for a relationship between these can be inferred (Hassay and Peloza 2009; Kylander and Stone 2012; Mort et al. 2007; Urde et al. 2007; Vecina et al. 2013; Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Affective commitment, broadly, has been noted as an outcome of enhanced trust, improved perceptions of organisational justice and support, and positive interactions between an individual and an organisation (Hutchison 1997; Meyer and Smith 2001; Meyer et al. 2002). Consideration of brand heritage’s constituent elements: trust, positive track record, longevity, and use of symbols (Wiedmann et al. 2011a), now structures the examination of support for this relationship. The trust element of brand heritage has been suggested to improve consumer perceptions of brand image, and ultimate satisfaction as demonstrated in research exploring luxury automotive consumption (Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Perceptions of satisfaction towards an organisation have been shown to hold some influence over levels of volunteer commitment (Chacón 2007; Vecina et al. 2013), thus, the literature intimates that the trust element of brand heritage contributes to stimulating affective commitment. Furthermore, Rose et al. (2016) empirically demonstrate that trust possesses a positive relationship with affective commitment in a private-sector context, thus, the trust element of brand heritage

is likely to be positively related to affective commitment. This notion is further underpinned by the role of trust in promoting and sustaining voluntary activity (Bekkers and Bowman 2009; Brown and Ferris 2007; Lee 2016; Taniguchi and Marshall 2014), which speaks to evidence suggesting that the duration of a volunteer's service can contribute to emotional investment in the organisation, subsequently boosting affective commitment (Chacón 2007; Dunham et al. 1994; Musick and Wilson 2008) and, furthermore, that trust plays a role in facilitating durable, dyadic relationships between volunteers and their managers (Allen et al. 2003; Grossman 1999; Johnson and Grayson 2005), which has also been shown to contribute positively to affective commitment levels (Meyer et al. 2002; Stride and Higgs 2013).

The positive track record and longevity elements of brand heritage are also suggested to positively influence affective commitment (Johnson and Grayson 2005; Peñaloza 2000; Thompson et al. 1994). Track record refers to an organisation's demonstrated record of success; so, where a positive track record exists, it is likely to contribute to stronger emotional and, therefore, affective commitment in volunteers. For example, Merchant and Rose (2013) show brand heritage to positively influence brand attachment and, logically, sustained brand attachment could contribute to fostering affective commitment. Evidence can also be inferred from the literature supporting a relationship between the longevity element of brand heritage and affective commitment, which emphasises the extent an organisation's heritage can be traced back in time (Ardelet et al. 2015; Burghausen and Balmer 2015; Merchant and Rose 2013; Mort et al. 2007).

Finally, brand heritage is comprised of an organisation's symbols (Wiedmann et al. 2011a), rendering it particularly appropriate to application in the non-profit sector which houses some of the world's most recognisable brands (Kylander and Stone 2012; Mort et al. 2007) (e.g., Amnesty International). While explicit empirical evidence is lacking, researchers have intimated that symbols can contribute to stimulating volunteer affective commitment (Bennett 1988; Kylander and Stone 2011; Wiedmann et al. 2011a; Wood. 2000). Furthermore, in a non-volunteer context, numerous examples attest to the power of symbols by highlighting the risks associated with making changes to, perhaps, long-used symbols which convey the essence of an organisation (Balmer et al. 2006). As brands move from being centrally controlled by marketing professionals, to being shaped by numerous faculties of an organisation, symbols could manifest in far more complex ways, for example, through uniforms, distinctive traditions, or organisational nomenclature, thus enhancing the opportunities for the symbolic component of brand

heritage to stimulate affective commitment (Conejo and Wooliscroft 2015; Jevons 2005; Miller and Merrilees 2013; Park et al. 1986).

Based on the preceding justifications, the following hypothesis is presented:

H3: Brand heritage has a positive relationship with affective commitment

3.13.4 Brand heritage and satisfaction with management

Viewed from a non-profit marketing perspective, brand heritage has been empirically shown to positively affect customer satisfaction through its constituent elements of track record, perception of history, values and use of symbols (Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Although several differences exist between customer and volunteer satisfaction with management, there are elements of crossover. For example, satisfaction is generally influenced by the fulfilment of motivations and effective management (Vecina et al. 2012). More broadly, the literature displays tacit support for the notion that trust (an outcome of brand heritage (Wiedmann et al. 2011a), influences volunteering behaviour and satisfaction (Garbarino and Johnson 1999; Srivastava 2013; Taniguchi and Marshall 2014), lending credibility to the idea that brand heritage holds influence over satisfaction levels. Furthermore, the literature emphasises the importance of value congruence between individuals and the brands they engage with, suggesting enhanced alignment can elicit positive emotional outcomes such as satisfaction with management (Kylander and Stone 2012; Schultz 2001; Shantz et al. 2014). Building on this, brand heritage, can be viewed as a composite of brand stories with an ability to generate intimacy and familiarity between individuals and an organisation (Ardelet et al. 2015). Thus, brand heritage could contribute to closely aligning an organisation's brand heritage with that held by an individual, fostering strong value congruence and inter-dependence. Accordingly, through this process, brand heritage could likely be intensifying volunteer satisfaction with their management (Ardelet et al. 2015; Hankinson 2004; Kylander and Stone 2012). Consequently, the following hypothesis was developed:

H4: Brand heritage has a positive relationship with satisfaction with management

3.13.5 Brand image and work engagement

Explicit empirical assessment of a relationship between brand image (i.e., perceptions held towards a brand (Michel and Rieunier 2012) and work engagement (i.e., the extent to which individuals are dedicated, absorbed in, and vigorously applied to their work (Vecina et al. 2013)) is lacking in the literature; nevertheless, a relationship can be inferred through discussion and results pertaining to related, overlapping, or complementary concepts (Bendapudi et al. 1996; Kylander and Stone 2012; Michel and

Rieunier 2012; Saxton 1995; Vecina et al. 2013; Wiedmann et al. 2011a) which highlight the importance of non-profit brands, and their consequent projected image, in growing and developing non-profit organisations (Faulkner et al. 2015; Kylander and Stone 2012). The importance of branding within the non-profit sector is further emphasised through the prevalence of non-profit brands, and the assertion that they are amongst some of the world's most powerful (Kylander and Stone 2012). Literature suggests non-profit organisations undertake brand management programmes with motivations comparable to their for-profit counterparts (Kylander and Stone 2012; Liu et al. 2013; Napoli 2006), indicating that strengthening volunteer engagement constitutes an output of such activity (Kylander and Stone 2012). Furthermore, Knox and Freeman (2006) argue that brands affect all aspects of an organisation's operations thus explaining how brand image's ability to promote alignment between an individual and a host organisation (through clearly articulating organisational values and offerings) is conducive to fostering value congruence and collegiality within an organisation, contributing to deepening engagement (Harp et al. 2016; Kylander and Stone 2012). Indeed, Harp et al. (2016) highlight the importance of conveying job role expectations with clarity, and its role in strengthening volunteer engagement.

The extant literature intimates that each of brand image's four elements comprising: usefulness, efficiency, affect, and dynamism (Michel and Rieunier 2012) contribute towards a relationship with engagement. Perceptions of usefulness held towards a brand can feasibly contribute to enhancing the dedication element of engagement, predicated on volunteers being motivated by perceiving the organisation as contributing effectively as a whole to causes they deem valuable (Musick and Wilson 2008); thus, again, emphasising the importance of value-congruence between individuals and organisations and the potential for brand image to enhance this through clearly delineating an organisation's offerings (Kylander and Stone 2012; Rich et al. 2010).

Perceptions of managerial efficiency and competence comprise another dimension of overall brand image which can conceivably influence the strength of engagement (Harp et al. 2016). Arguably, the non-profit sector is particularly sensitive to accusations of poor governance, evidenced through the negative publicity, and subsequent collapse of Kids Company, a charity accused of inefficiency and mismanagement (Hillier 2015). Perceptions of efficiency and prudent management can be achieved through establishing a degree of transparency to management decisions, complemented by procedural justice, which research suggests can enhance engagement (Saks 2006). This is supported through

research findings that management requiring volunteers to undertake tasks perceived by them as unnecessary or illegitimate, negatively affects the depth of their engagement (van Schie et al. 2013).

The affective emotional dimension of brand image pertains to the extent characteristics of friendliness are perceived in an organisation's projected brand image (Michel and Rieunier 2012). Thus, affective brand image possessing a relationship to subsequent engagement speaks to understanding of the importance of socialising and organisational support as motivators for volunteers and influencers on them sustaining volunteer activity (Clary and Miller 1986; Musick and Wilson 2008; Nencini et al. 2016; Wallace 2006). The opportunity to socialise, and create strong bonds with other volunteers has long been observed as a motivator for volunteer action and its continuation (Musick and Wilson 2008; Wilson 2012). Building on empirical investigation by Pavey et al. (2011) showing anticipation and experience of relatedness contributes to stimulating prosocial behaviours, Nencini et al. (2016) empirically show relatedness positively affects levels of volunteer engagement. Perceived organisational support has also been suggested to deepen levels of engagement (Greenfield et al. 2016). In particular communicating the extent of organisational support to prospective volunteers has been shown to elevate the respect volunteers hold toward an organisation (Boezeman and Ellemers 2008). Thus, as one medium of communication between an organisation and its prospective and current volunteers, projected brand image generating feelings of respect, and conceptually similar relatedness towards an organisation can contribute to deepening engagement (Boezeman and Ellemers 2008). Furthermore, Wallace (2006) suggests feelings of *communitas*, and the associated intense social bonding it can deliver represents a further stimulant for volunteer commitment and dedication towards a cause. Given the capacity for *communitas* to engender team-working, trust, and personal connectedness towards organisations and experiences (Sharpe 2005; Taheri et al. 2016; Turner 1964; Wallace 2006), conceptually similar relatedness, as conveyed through brand image, is also likely to contribute to strengthening engagement.

The dynamism element of brand image relates to the extent modern and innovative characteristics are perceived as inherent within an organisation's projected brand (Michel and Rieunier 2012). Although limited, there is some tacit evidence suggesting engagement can be optimised when they perceive a host organisation is perceived to exhibit particular qualities (Cole et al. 2012), although Boezeman and Ellemers (2007) suggest the age of volunteers may influence what organisational traits stimulate

engagement the most. Thus, the dynamism brand image dimension could potentially exhibit varying influence partly dependant on age-groups. Nevertheless, literature supports the broader notion that innovation and the adoption of modern management practices (e.g., social media engagement, celebrity endorsement, strategic partnerships) contribute positively to the operations of non-profit organisations (Austin 2000; Bekkers and Wiepking 2010; Svensson et al. 2015), thus intimating such manifestations of dynamism could contribute to enhancing volunteer engagement.

The importance for alignment between the externally projected brand image and the internal offerings provided by a non-profit organisation are emphasised by Kylander and Stone (2012), thus suggesting that brand image should accurately delineate an organisation's offerings if volunteer engagement is to be increased. Overall, the conception that brand image (including its usefulness, efficiency, affect, and dynamism dimensions (Michel and Rieunier 2012)) can positively influence the level of volunteer engagement (comprised of absorption, dedication and vigour (Vecina et al. 2012)) is supported by the literature.

Based on the preceding rationale, the following hypothesis is presented:

H5: Brand image has a positive relationship with volunteer work engagement

3.13.6 Communitas and brand image

Although explicit investigation of *communitas* (an intense feeling of camaraderie) in relation to brand image (a multidimensional projected perception of a brand (Michel and Rieunier 2012)) is absent from the literature, the relationship does find implicit support from research suggesting *communitas* experiences can enhance perceptions of an organisation's brand image broadly, and in particular its usefulness and affect dimensions (see sections 3.7.2 3.7.3) (Di Giovine 2011; McGinnis et al. 2008; Meyer et al. 2002; Michel and Rieunier 2012). *Communitas* has gradually moved from the domain of anthropological research (Turner 1969), to marketing-oriented applications (Taheri et al. 2016), thus inviting further investigation from a marketing perspective.

One benefit of brand image is its potential to delineate between symbolic and functional associations of brands (Aaker 2009; Hankinson 2001; Michel and Rieunier 2012). Symbolic associations may manifest in a non-profit sector organisation through current, and prospective volunteers' interpretations of its values and culture, and the subsequent emotions it elicits (Aaker 2009; Michel and Rieunier 2012), while functional associations constitute communication of core organisational characteristics (e.g., areas of operation) and mission related information (e.g., its fundamental aims) (Michel & Rieunier, 2012).

Given this capability of brand image, and an established desire amongst volunteers for social experiences (Clary et al. 1998; Musick and Wilson 2008), *communitas* experiences could positively influence elements of symbolic, and functional brand image associations, if communicated externally (McGinnis et al. 2008; 2012). Thus, enhancement and communication of *communitas* opportunities, and the benefits of *communitas* experiences could positively enhance brand image and, therefore, a volunteer's perception of a particular organisation.

The complementarity between *communitas* and brand image is also evident in the literature, which supports the notion "a nonprofit brand is most powerful when the organization's internal identity and external image are aligned with each other and with its values and mission" (Kylander and Stone 2012 p. 39). Thus, Kylander and Stone (2012) and Rich et al. (2010) intimate concepts such as *communitas*, which embody symbolic and functional traits inherent in an organisation, should be aligned with the projected brand image to maximise its effectiveness. This notion finds further traction upon consideration of the positive role *communitas* plays in organisations (Cayla et al. 2013), and throughout particular experiences, resulting in enhancement of cognitive arousal, immersion, and pleasure (Sharpe 2005; Taheri et al. 2016).

The literature conceptualises brand image as comprising of four dimensions: usefulness, efficiency, affect, and dynamism (Michel and Rieunier 2012), of which the usefulness and affect components hold the strongest pertinence to *communitas*. Usefulness is, therefore, a dimension of brand image concerned with the extent a particular brand is perceived to be helpful, supportive, and of value to an individual (Michel and Rieunier 2012), the extent to which volunteer motivations including socialising, and escaping the mundanity of daily routine (Harbert 2012; Meneghini 2016; Musick and Wilson 2008) speak to elements of *communitas* literature which convey the desire for individuals to move into liminal or liminoid states (Turner 1964; 1969). Empirical research suggests *communitas* experiences can be managed by organisations (Cayla et al. 2013), suggesting it could also be incorporated into projections of their brand image.

Suggestions of a strong relationship between *communitas* and brand image are further supported when the affective brand image dimension is considered. The affective dimension is concerned with the emotional perception volunteers develop towards a brand image (Michel and Rieunier 2012). More broadly, research suggests that strong emotional connection and investment between individuals and brands represent a powerful marketing tool, and can lead to mutually beneficial long-term relationships

(Globe 2001; Thompson et al. 2006). Thus, consideration of the effects of, and exposure to, *communitas* (e.g., high perceived organisational support, strong social bonds, improved psychological well-being (Di Giovine 2011; McGinnis et al. 2008; Turner 1969) suggest volunteers could logically perceive an emotional connection between themselves and a non-profit organisation's brand image.

Consequently, the following hypothesis is made:

H6: *Communitas* has a positive relationship with brand image

3.13.7 *Communitas and affective commitment*

Explicit support for *communitas*' (i.e., intense social bonding (Di Giovine 2011)) relationship with affective commitment (i.e., a strong emotional bond between volunteer and host organisation (Chênevert et al. 2015; Meyer et al. 2002) as conceptualised in this research is absent from the literature, although it can be inferred through evidence suggestive of a relationship (McGinnis et al. 2008; Taheri et al. 2016; Wallace 2006). *Communitas* and affective commitment).

Communitas experiences are highly prized, as they offer the experiencer an escape from reality, and a near sacred, intimately communal experience in a liminal or liminoid space (Sharpe 2005; Taheri et al. 2016; Turner 1969). Consequently, *communitas* has been suggested to deliver numerous positive outcomes for the experiencer, some of which can be variously argued to be, or shown to enhance, affective commitment. This argument is supported through literature suggesting affective commitment can be enhanced by factors including positive work experiences attributable to workforce camaraderie, support, and perceived strength of organisational justice (Allen and Meyer 1990; Bishop et al. 2000; Chênevert et al. 2015; De Gilder 2003; Meyer et al. 2002; Musick and Wilson 2008) which, therefore, speaks to the ability to foster strong social bonds and a spirit of 'oneness' while also contributing to entrench affective commitment.

The intensity of *communitas* experiences alludes to aspects of the flow concept, which creates a near trance-like state of mind in enabling intense absorption and focus which experiencers strive to re-achieve (Celsi et al. 1993; Csikszentmihalyi 1997; McGinnis et al. 2008). *Communitas* has also been noted to unlock similar desires amongst individuals and could, therefore, be suggested to generate comparable outcomes, intensifying affective commitment (McGinnis et al. 2008; Schaufeli et al. 2002). *Communitas* experiences can potentially foster a stronger sense of pride, contentment, and trust amongst those who share such experiences (Cayla et al. 2013; Di Giovine 2011; Sharpe 2005; Turner 1964; Wallace 2006); such *communitas* outcomes have been suggested as

antecedents of affective commitment (Boezeman and Ellemers 2007; De Gilder 2003; Gounaris 2005). The relationship is further supported through *communitas*' empirically demonstrated ability to enhance propensity for enduring involvement amongst individuals in the context of golf (McGinnis et al. 2008), as well as its ability to enhance involvement of individuals during nightclubbing experiences (Taheri et al. 2016). Indeed, Taheri et al. (2016 p. 36) note how "...the spark and energy of spontaneous *communitas*, and the feeling of freedom of choice (optionality), will lead to heightened pleasure and arousal, and to repeat business", further intimating that *communitas* is conducive strengthening affective commitment.

Consequently, the following hypothesis is made:

H7: *Communitas* has a positive relationship with affective commitment

3.13.8 *Communitas and satisfaction with management*

Explicit empirical research identifying a connection between *communitas* (characterised as an intense social bonding experience (McGinnis et al. 2008)), and the extent to which an individual is satisfied with the way they are managed (i.e., satisfaction with management (Vecina et al. 2012)) is lacking in the literature, although support can be inferred through findings regarding similar concepts, and through considering the relationships between known outcomes of *communitas* and satisfaction with management (Ashforth and Mael 1989; Lee 2016; Ohana et al. 2012).

Research suggests strong group cohesiveness and peer support can positively influence employee, or volunteer satisfaction (Hidalgo and Moreno 2009; Keller 1986), complementing understanding that social interaction represents a strong motivational factor for volunteering activity, and that the process of realising motivations enhances satisfaction (Clary and Miller 1986; Finkelstein 2008; Musick and Wilson 2008; Willems et al. 2012). For example, Skoglund (2006) presents results of a study of hospital volunteers who reported that a lack of peer and management support depressed their levels of volunteer satisfaction. Furthermore, Hidalgo and Moreno (2009) highlight how volunteer group integration can affect decisions to continue volunteering, indicating increased satisfaction levels. This notion is supported by additional studies highlighting a lack of organisational support, as well as an inability to fulfil motivations as principal causes of low satisfaction (Hustinx 2010; Musick and Wilson 2008). Consequently, *communitas* can contribute to building strong bonds and facilitating intimate social experiences conducive to a supportive environment (Di Giovine 2011; Turner 1964; Wallace 2006). In part, this could be attributable to *communitas*' anti-structural

characteristics which break down regular social barriers (e.g., occupation, social class, educational background), promoting a strong collegial environment. Thus, in cases where volunteers are partly motivated by social motivations, *communitas* could contribute to satisfying these and, consequently, enhance satisfaction. The literature also intimates *communitas* could contribute to strengthening volunteer satisfaction with management, evidenced through Garner and Garner (2010) who highlight that the provision of support for volunteers enhances satisfaction and reduces volunteer turnover.

The relationship between *communitas* and volunteer satisfaction with management is also suggested through research indicating that enhancing organisational pride, and personal self-esteem, can positively influence an individual's satisfaction with management (Ashforth and Mael 1989; Lee 2016). This notion is further supported by research highlighting the consequences of low self-esteem and morale in organisations which can result in apathy, high turnover rates, and a culture of resistance towards management (Musick and Wilson 2008; Willems et al. 2012; Wilson 2012).

Pertinent literature highlights the contribution of perceived justice, and managerial transparency within organisations, and how reductions in managerial legitimacy can lead to reduced satisfaction levels (Farndale et al. 2011). Thus, *communitas* can be logically conceived to contribute to maintaining positive perceptions of organisational justice and fairness through its ability to foster close ties that can engender trust and improved intra-organisational communication (Di Giovine 2011; Sharpe 2005; Turner 1969).

Although overlooked and lacking empirical support, the literature suggests *communitas* can contribute to developing enhanced volunteer satisfaction with management on two levels. Namely, its ability to propagate intense bonds and camaraderie between individuals rendering it a highly desirable experience, which experiencers seek to re-achieve (Di Giovine 2011; McGinnis et al. 2008; Turner 1969), coupled with its various outputs which can facilitate improved trust, communication, morale, and motivation fulfilment; factors accredited with enhancing volunteer satisfaction (Hidalgo and Moreno 2009; Musick and Wilson 2008; Taniguchi and Marshall 2014; Vecina et al. 2012).

Based on the preceding discussion, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H8: *Communitas* has a positive relationship with satisfaction with management

3.13.9 *Work engagement and satisfaction with management*

Literature supports a connection between the concepts of engagement and satisfaction with management. Engagement, described as “a positive, fulfilling, task-related state of mind characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption” (Vecina et al. 2012 p. 131) has

been noted as distinct from similar concepts such as commitment and workaholism (Vecina et al. 2012).

Volunteer satisfaction is a complex concept pertaining to elements of satisfaction towards management. Vecina et al. (2012) suggest dedication exerts significant influence over satisfaction with management within a volunteering context, signifying that more dedicated volunteers, like their paid counterparts (Shuck and Wollard 2010) and students (Wefald and Downey 2009), are more satisfied with management. Additionally, prior research shows volunteer absorption to have a positive effect upon satisfaction with management (Vecina et al. 2012). For absorption to manifest, volunteers need appropriate physical, emotional and psychological resources (Schaufeli et al. 2002; Shuck 2011), which are primarily provided by the management of the voluntary organisation; thus, indicating a likely additional connection. Finally, volunteers exerting vigorous attitudes towards their volunteer roles tend to be more satisfied with management (Vecina et al. 2012). Engagement has also been connected to the broader motivation realisation, and volunteer task elements of volunteer satisfaction (Vecina et al. 2012). Overall, evidence suggests deeper engagement is likely to release higher levels of all components of satisfaction, including satisfaction with management (Vecina et al. 2012; 2013).

Consequently, the following hypothesis is presented:

H9: Volunteer work engagement has a positive relationship with satisfaction with management

3.13.10 Work engagement and affective commitment

Commitment literature views commitment from both a broad commitment perspective, but also by examining components such as affective commitment distinctly (Meyer et al. 2002; Stride and Higgs 2013). Elements of affective commitment (an individual's emotional connection with an organisation (Meyer and Allen 1991)) are inherent in much of the more broadly conceptualised investigations of commitment, and are thus integrated in justifying this relationship.

Within the volunteer oriented literature, various studies have demonstrated an intimacy between work engagement and affective commitment (Hallberg and Schaufeli 2006; Vecina et al. 2012; Vecina et al. 2013), and have even led to accusations that the concepts are one and the same (Hallberg and Schaufeli 2006). Nevertheless, Hallberg and Schaufeli (2006 p. 120) contest that commitment and work engagement "...contain reciprocal, theoretical references to each other" but remain distinct concepts. Indeed, considering the body of literature associated with the concepts, work engagement and

affective organisational commitment have come to be viewed as dependent outcome variables in organisational research (Hallberg and Schaufeli 2006). Two significant supporting investigations attest to this (Vecina et al. 2012; Vecina et al. 2013). For example, Vecina et al. (2012) find engagement to have a relationship with organisational commitment amongst volunteers who are internationally active and operating in Spain. Supporting these findings, commitment is noted to act as a mediator between engagement and an individual's intention to remain with an organisation (Vecina et al. 2012). Furthermore, in a separate study amongst 232 volunteers affiliated to 18 different voluntary organisations, commitment was found to fully mediate the relationship between engagement and intentions to remain with a voluntary organisation (Vecina et al. 2013). Within a private sector context, Meyer and Allen's (2002) meta-analysis of the antecedents and outcomes of commitment find affective commitment to be positively related to antecedents related to work engagement, including job support and perceptions of organisational justice (Meyer et al. 2002), and positive emotions towards an organisation (Rose et al. 2016), thus intimating a relationship between engagement and affective commitment. Consequently, the literature supports a relationship between work engagement and affective commitment.

As a result, the following hypothesis is presented:

H10: Volunteer work engagement has a positive relationship with affective commitment.

3.14 Key Gaps in the Literature and Conceptual Model

Both the contextual underpinnings and critical literature review offered in the preceding chapters serve to highlight salient issues pertaining to the non-profit sector, emphasising the need for the sector to establish new and effective approaches that allow it to continue operating in an increasingly challenging environment. While highlighting these problems, the literature review has identified brand heritage as an emerging marketing concept with potential for non-profit sector organisations both old and new. Further, the literature review has identified a lack of empirical brand heritage research in the private sector, and its absence in the non-profit sector. Furthermore, the literature review presented five salient concepts: *communitas*, brand image, volunteer work engagement, affective commitment and satisfaction with management that are related to brand heritage, and have been identified as useful avenues of research, this research contributes by developing for the first time, understanding of their interplay.

Underpinned by the volunteer process model, and based on the literature review, Figure 3 shows the newly developed theoretical model.

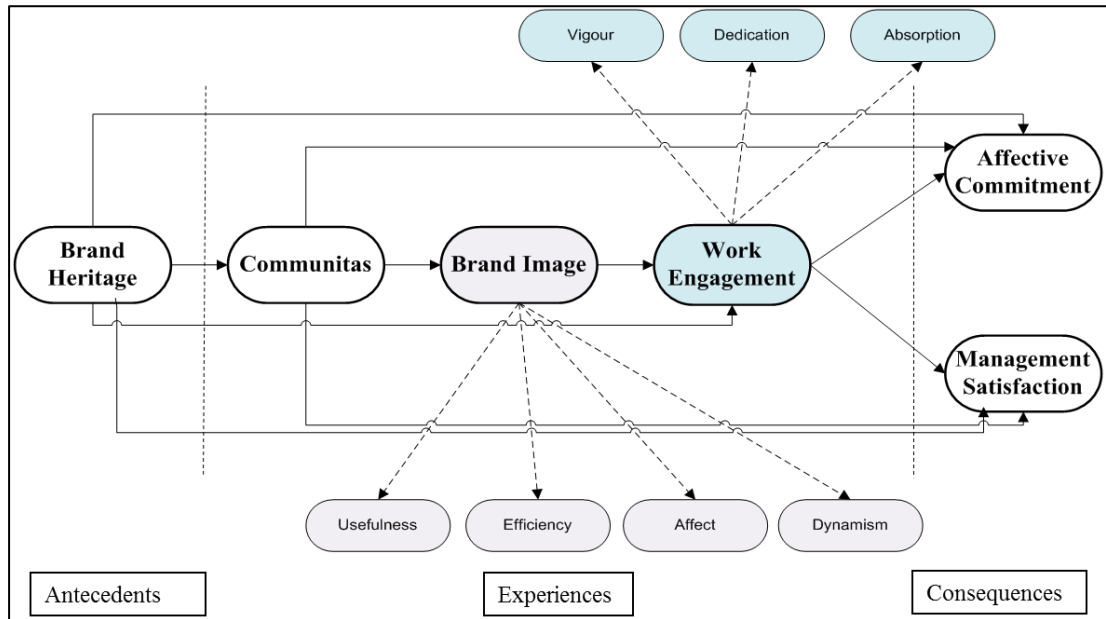


Figure 4: Brand Heritage Volunteering Model

Following the development of the brand heritage volunteering model shown in Figure 3, the hypotheses presented below were formulated:

- H1:** Brand heritage has a positive relationship with communitas
- H2:** Brand heritage has a positive relationship with volunteer work engagement
- H3:** Brand heritage has a positive relationship with affective commitment
- H4:** Brand Heritage has a positive relationship with satisfaction with management
- H5:** Brand image has a positive relationship with volunteer work engagement
- H6:** Communitas has a positive relationship with brand image
- H7:** Communitas has a positive relationship with affective commitment
- H8:** Communitas has a positive relationship with satisfaction with management
- H9:** Volunteer work engagement has a positive relationship with satisfaction with management
- H10:** Volunteer work engagement has a positive relationship with affective commitment

The following stage of the research is concerned with its operationalisation, towards testing the research hypotheses and the appropriateness of the conceptual model. Consequently, the methodology used in this research is outlined before empirical results are presented, demanding adjustments to the model. Ultimately, practical implications as a consequence of this research are offered in the final chapter.

Chapter 4 Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodology used in conducting the research for this thesis, towards establishing and understanding the role of brand heritage in creating satisfied and committed Scout volunteers. The chapter presents and discusses potential methodological and research designs, offering an insight into various research methods and strategies and their application within the non-profit research community. First, the research aims, objectives and hypotheses are revisited before three philosophical research paradigms are introduced and the pragmatist approach taken in this research justified. Subsequently, the mixed methods explanatory sequential design, used in this research is presented.

4.2 Aims and Objectives of the Research

Aim: The aim of this research is to develop a new theoretical model of the volunteering process to enhance volunteer management practice.

Specifically, it investigates the influence of brand heritage on *communitas*, brand image, work engagement, affective commitment and satisfaction in relation to volunteer management.

Towards meeting the aims of this project, the following objectives were devised:

1. Underpinned by the volunteer process model, identify antecedents, experiences, and consequences of volunteering.
2. To explore how antecedents of volunteering contribute to volunteer experiences.
3. To expand understanding of how antecedents of volunteering impact on the consequences of volunteering.
4. To develop understanding of the dynamics of volunteer experiences.
5. To evaluate the influence of volunteer experiences upon the consequences of volunteering.

Consequently, derived from the theoretical model presented at the conclusion of Chapter 3, the research hypotheses guiding this study are as follows:

H1: Brand heritage has a positive relationship with *communitas* (meeting objective 2).

H2: Brand heritage has a positive relationship with volunteer work engagement (meeting objective 2).

H3: Brand heritage has a positive relationship with affective commitment (meeting objective 3).

H4: Brand Heritage has a positive relationship with satisfaction with management (meeting objective 3).

H5: Brand image has a positive relationship with volunteer work engagement (meeting objective 4).

H6: Communitas has a positive relationship with brand image (meeting objective 4).

H7: Communitas has a positive relationship with affective commitment (meeting objective 5).

H8: Communitas has a positive relationship with satisfaction with management (meeting objective 5).

H9: Volunteer work engagement has a positive relationship with satisfaction with management (meeting objective 5).

H10: Volunteer work engagement has a positive relationship with affective commitment (meeting objective 5).

Finally, the following sections explore paradigmatic assumptions as they relate to this research, before explaining the processes followed in its quantitative and qualitative elements.

4.3 Research Philosophy

Philosophical ideas and their accompanying ideologies pervade the undertaking of research, thus, identifying such ideas is critical within any research design (Creswell 2015). Indeed, a lack of consideration for philosophical positions “...while not necessarily fatal, can seriously affect the quality of management research...” (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012 p. 56). Easterby-Smith et al (2012) note an enlightened awareness of philosophical issues, and how they underpin management research is important for the following reasons: first, such an approach adds clarity and depth of understanding regarding research designs, as well as the broader research process. Second, enlightened philosophical awareness arms researchers with knowledge to more effectively select appropriate research designs for a particular project, aiding its efficiency. Third, knowledge of philosophy may lead researchers to use new designs, or adjust previously used approaches in-line with growing philosophical understanding. Ultimately, clarifying and communicating one’s philosophical views, lends weight to subsequent research design justifications. Arriving at a philosophical stance is predicated on both reviewing

philosophical positions (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009), and assessing assumptions researchers make about knowledge, its acquisition, and methods used in acquiring it (Creswell 2015).

The contention that “matters philosophical are always to some extent unsettled and debateable” (Thayer 1982b p. vii) resonates with the multiplicity of meanings attributed to the terminologies of research philosophy. Philosophical positions are variously referred to as paradigms, epistemologies, ontologies, methodologies, and worldviews, lending an air of “...intellectually useful” (Guba 1990 p. 17) malleability to the often contradictory perspectives they represent. It is customary in doctoral research methodologies to debate the merits of two competing worldviews, towards assessing their pertinence to the current research project, before presenting the worldview used in the research, a convention upheld in this study. Comparing the merits of worldviews is complicated by a fragmented and interchangeable nomenclature (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012). To aid comparison between them it is first useful to consider competing worldviews on levels of ontology, epistemology, methodology and method (Crotty 1998; Easterby-Smith et al. 2012), terms described in Table 20 below.

Table 20: Philosophical Terms

Adapted from Easterby-Smith et al. 2012 p. 60

Philosophical Term	Description
Ontology	Philosophical assumptions about the nature of reality.
Epistemology	General set of assumptions about the best ways of inquiring into the nature of the world.
Methodology	Combination of techniques used to enquire into a specific situation.
Methods	Individual techniques for data collection, analysis, etc.

Expanding on Table 20, ontology can be viewed as the initial stage of research, extending influence throughout the entire process (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012). Ultimately, questioning existence and reality, the ontological debate explores reality on a spectrum both as the product of one’s consciousness, and its physical existence in external structures (Crotty 1998). Epistemology is concerned with assumptions attached to inquiry into the world (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012), specifically, the character and foundation of knowledge (Burrell and Morgan 1979) as influenced by meanings attributed to reality (Crotty 1998). Its relationship to these meanings of reality, when considered alongside ontology’s focus on realities’ assumptions, fosters confusion

between both concepts (Crotty 1998). Both ontological and epistemological stances influence choices in research methodology and the subsequent research methods used (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012). In other words, it is often argued that certain methodological approaches, and methods, variously complement and contradict particular ontological, and epistemological stances (O'Gorman and MacIntosh 2015).

In accordance with the principal proponents of the philosophical position taken in this thesis (Creswell 2009; Creswell 2015; Creswell and Plano Clark 2011; Morgan 2007), *worldview*, defined by Guba (1990 p. 17) as "...a basic set of beliefs that guide action" will subsequently be used. Worldviews form through continuing researcher socialisation, influenced by the research culture in their field, faculty, institution and prior research successes (Creswell 2009; Creswell 2015).

Debate regarding a dominant worldview continues to polarise research communities (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012), and within management and social science research often leads to fortification of each side's position, resulting in effective worldview imprisonment necessitating attacks on opposing standpoints that are positioned elsewhere along an imagined worldview continuum (Morgan 2007). Such entrenchment can ultimately constrain research development (Corman 2000; Easterby-Smith et al. 2012). Thus, as research problems often necessitate bespoke investigative approaches, understanding opposing worldview camps allows researchers to apprehend their inherent strengths and weaknesses (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012), justifying the requirement of an understanding of dominant competing worldviews prior to selecting and implementing a particular research approach to justify both the selection and rejection of alternative approaches.

Two dominant and broadly opposing worldviews are the positivist, and the constructivist (Creswell 2009; Crotty 1998; Easterby-Smith et al. 2012). These are discussed in the following section in relation to this research.

4.3.1 *Positivist and constructivist worldviews*

Pioneered by scientists such as August Comte in 17th century Europe, the positivist worldview is intimately wedded to empirical science (Crotty 1998). Consequently, positivism - in its purest form - supports the notion of an external social world, measurable through objective scientific methods. Ontologically, positivism is external and objective, while epistemologically positivism denotes significance to knowledge observed from the external reality (Comte 1868; Easterby-Smith et al. 2012; Gill and Johnson 2010). The positivist worldview held a dominant position within scientific

research for much of the 20th century, and is typically associated with the ‘hard’ sciences. More recently, however, positivism has been criticised in relation to its ‘value free’ claims (Creswell 2009), as well as perceived associations of restriction and rigidity deemed too structured for the fluid, malleable world in which we reside (Crotty 1998). At the opposing end of an imagined worldview continuum is constructivism. Constructivism (variously labelled as interpretivism, naturalism, and phenomenological worldviews), arose in response to positivist research in the social sciences in the second half of the 20th century (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012). The constructivist worldview differs fundamentally from positivism on the grounds that it emphasises understanding rather than explanation (Schwandt 2000). Accordingly, proponents of constructivism strive to understand the world they occupy through creating subjective meanings, based on their experiences (Creswell 2009), which are “negotiated historically [...] not simply imprinted on individuals but are formed through interaction with others...” (Creswell 2009 p. 8). Constructivist research generally follows an inductive approach (where the researcher first observes a problem and develops generalisation and theories), developing theories of meaning over time (Creswell 2009; Gill and Johnson 2010), thus, constructivist research generally involves the thematic analysis of narrative information (Teddle and Tashakkori 2009). Table 21 illustrates the principal differences between positivist and constructivist worldviews and their implications.

Table 21: Positivism and Constructivism

Adapted from Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009

Dimensions of Contrast	Positivism	Constructivism
Methods	Quantitative	Qualitative
Logic	Hypothetico-deductive (originally inductive)	Inductive
Epistemology	Objective point of view	Subjective point of view; reality is co-constructed with participants
Axiology (role of values)	Value-free inquiry	Value-bound inquiry
Ontology	Naïve realism (an objective, external reality that can be comprehended)	Ontological relativism-multiple, constructed realities
Possibility of causal linkages	Real causes temporally precedent to or simultaneous with effects	Impossible to distinguish causes from effects; credibility of descriptions important
Possibility of generalisation	Nomothetic statements possible	Only ideographic statements possible; transferability issues important

As Table 21 displays, there are fundamental differences in research approach, between positivist, and constructivist worldviews. The purported fundamental differences

between worldviews form the basis of the incompatibility thesis, which holds that combining qualitative and quantitative forms of research is incommensurate with the opposing paradigms from which they stem (Comte 1868; Creswell 2009; Fay 1999; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009). Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) support this notion, highlighting a core tenet of the incompatibility thesis as the assignment of certain research methods to particular worldviews, thus allowing no methodological combinations to bridge the supposed expanse between them.

Despite these long-held views, more recently, researchers have recognised the benefits of combining methods from supposedly opposing worldviews and, in contrast to ideas proffered by the incompatibility thesis, found them complementary of one another, and conducive to strong research (Fay 1999; Holmes and Slater 2012). In support of this view, Stewart (2009 p. 381) argues multiple methods can "...create robust "facts", and "truths."". Furthermore, Stewart (2009 p. 382) suggests multiple method research can produce findings "...far more compelling than single method outcomes", echoing a more broadly held consensus that the incompatibility debate has been resolved, and replaced by an acceptance of 'compatibility' (Howe 1988). Such challenges to the incompatibility thesis have emboldened the mixed-methods research community (see: Creswell 2015; Creswell and Plano Clark 2011; Hanson et al. 2005; Holmes and Slater 2012; Howe 1988; Ivankova et al. 2006; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004; Morgan 2007; Tashakkori and Creswell 2007; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009), whose research approach is further justified by Brewer and Hunter (2006 p. 55) who note: "Rather than be wedded to a particular theoretical style [...] and it's most compatible method, one might instead combine methods that would encourage or even require integration of different theoretical perspectives to interpret the data."

Thus the emergent compatibility thesis – a response to the incompatibility thesis – demands an appropriate philosophical underpinning that is an alternative to positivism or constructivism (Creswell 2009), to allow for the use of mixed methods. Pragmatism is regarded as an appropriate philosophical perspective (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009, Creswell 2009, 2015). This thesis adopts a pragmatist perspective; justification for this will now be presented.

4.3.2 *Pragmatism as a worldview*

The philosophy of pragmatism emerged as a movement in Europe through ideas espoused by Immanuel Kant (Dewey 1931) but took root more strongly in the United States (Honderich 2005; Thayer 1982a). Increasingly accepted, pragmatism is recognised as

making a substantial impact on academic philosophy and wider research communities (Thayer 1982a). The origins of modern pragmatism can be ascribed to two events. First, the core tenets and ideas of pragmatism were developed within Metaphysical Club meetings attended by Cambridge philosophers. Second, ardent proponents of pragmatism such as Charles Sanders Pierce committed their ideas to writing, allowing them to be disseminated to wider audiences and developed by other figures in the movement (Dewey 1931). In these writings, Pierce conveyed his ideas of pragmatism, emphasising the importance of the role of action as a medium for the attribution of meaning to concepts in the real world, holding that through this process, results could be observed (Dewey 1931). Following from Pierce, William James has been credited with popularising pragmatism (Honderich 2005). James (1920 p. 412) suggests that "...the ultimate test for us of what a truth means is indeed the conduct it dictates or inspires." Thus, James emphasises the connections between action, and meaning [or knowledge]. James was generally supportive of Pierce's ideas around pragmatism, but viewed the world from an instinctively different, humanist perspective (Dewey 1931). Thus, James emphasises how accepting the multitude of individually-held innate beliefs and motives has ramifications for those beliefs, presenting a view more compatible with the complex social world in which we live. Consequently, James' ideas around pragmatism suggest "...certain beliefs could be justified by means of the nature of their consequences, or by the differences which these beliefs make in existence." (Dewey 1982 p. 31). John Dewey offers a 'revolutionary' contribution by emphasising the redundancy of the antecedent phenomena in traditional research, in exchange for growing importance and, therefore, required emphasis upon the consequent phenomena (1982 pp. 32-33).

Resulting from Dewey's assertion, pragmatism as a philosophy gained metaphysical relevance, challenging the notion of a currently static world, and emphasising its continuing evolution and development, necessitating reason to be viewed as a creating force. The implication being that, through action, the world can evolve in a different way from that which would have taken place in the absence of action (Dewey 1982), supporting the idea that independent 'truth' and theory and practise, rather than being separate, are intimately connected (Mautner 2005). Ultimately, proponents of pragmatism emphasise the connection between knowledge and action, viewing ideas not as verification of past occurrences or epistemological perspectives but, instead, as influencers of future phenomena (Honderich 2005). Consequently, holders of a pragmatist worldview support the notion that philosophical assumptions and research

methods can be variously combined to most effectively allow for the fulfilment of a research project's aims and objectives. Thus, pragmatism encourages efficacy in research approaches, exploration rather than criticism of the world, and a progressive, optimistic world perspective amongst its proponents (Honderich 2005).

Within the realms of contemporary research, pragmatism is widely recognised as an appropriate philosophical perspective for mixed methods research (Creswell 2009; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009), and is defined by two ardent modern day proponents as:

“A deconstructive paradigm that debunks concepts such as ‘truth’ and ‘reality’ and focuses instead on ‘what works’ as the truth regarding the research question under investigation. Pragmatism rejects the either/or choices associated with the paradigm wars, advocates for the use of mixed methods in research, and acknowledges that the values of the researcher play a large role in interpretation of results” (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003 p. 713).

Thus, pragmatism maintains a committed centre-ground perspective towards methodological, and research design strategies (Creswell 2009; Johnson et al. 2007) while providing epistemologically robust justification predicated upon complementarity between its philosophical position, logic, and efficacious approach to answering research questions (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004; Johnson et al. 2007). Some identified benefits of a pragmatic approach are described in Table 22.

Table 22: Benefits of Pragmatist Approaches

Benefit	Description	Supporting Sources
Bespoke	Pragmatism allows research methods to be tailored to the characteristics of research questions.	Creswell 2009; Feilzer 2010; Hanson et al. 2005; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004; Morgan 2007; Shannon-Baker 2015; Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998
Intuitive	Pragmatism allows researchers to use methods commensurate with their specialisms where research questions allow.	Creswell 2009; Feilzer 2010; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004; Morgan 2007; Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998
Efficacious	Pragmatism allows researchers to apply the ‘best-fit’ method to answering research questions.	Creswell 2009; Feilzer 2010; Hanson et al. 2005; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004; Morgan 2007; Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998
Progressive	Pragmatism encourages researchers to apply findings positively to an evolving world, commensurate with value systems.	Creswell 2009; Feilzer 2010; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004; Morgan 2007; Shannon-Baker 2015; Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998

The various benefits attributable to a pragmatic approach, described in Table 22, strengthen and justify its position in relation to the criticisms it attracts. One criticism of pragmatism is its tendency to foster gradual rather than fundamental changes in

understanding (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004). However, the aims of this project are not to fundamentally revolutionise thinking regarding brand heritage in the non-profit sector but, rather, to contribute to current knowledge of brand heritage in an incremental fashion. Further, a pragmatist approach is criticised for encouraging applied research at the expense of basic research, due to the practical nature of such results being in keeping with pragmatist philosophy (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004). In this research, such a criticism is of little concern. Finally, pragmatism has been criticised for definitional obscurities, and a confusion regarding its main arguments and ideas (Elkjaer and Simpson 2011).

Nevertheless, pragmatism is considered by many as a dominant, and suitably robust approach to research (Creswell 2009; Morgan 2007; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009), that is particularly suited to mixed methods approaches (Hanson et al. 2005). One of the principal merits of pragmatism is its acceptance of using both qualitative and quantitative methods to optimally answer research questions (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009), meaning pragmatist researchers can be more flexible in the methods of data collection, and analysis they adopt (Onwuegbuzie et al. 2009). In this sense, pragmatist researchers are not concerned with the methods employed, but rather emphasise the potential scope for answering particular research questions (Feilzer 2010). Table 23 builds on Table 21 by summarising the two dominant competing worldviews (i.e., positivism and constructivism) in relation to pragmatism.

Table 23: Positivism, Pragmatism, and Constructivism.

Adapted from Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009)

Dimensions of Contrast	Positivism	Pragmatism	Constructivism
Methods	Quantitative	Quantitative and Qualitative	Qualitative
Logic	Hypothetico-deductive	Deductive and Inductive	Inductive

	(originally inductive)		
Epistemology	Objective point of view	Objective and subjective points of view	Subjective point of view; reality is co-constructed with participants
Axiology (role of values)	Value-free inquiry	Values strongly influence results	Value-bound inquiry
Ontology	Naïve realism (an objective, external reality that can be comprehended)	External reality accepted. Choose explanations that best produce desired outcomes	Ontological relativism-multiple, constructed realities
Possibility of causal linkages	Real causes temporally precedent to or simultaneous with effects	There may be causal relationships, but we will never be able to pin them down	Impossible to distinguish causes from effects; credibility of descriptions important
Possibility of generalisation	Nomothetic statements possible	There may be causal relationships, but we will never be able to completely pin them down	Only ideographic statements possible; transferability issues important

Adopting a pragmatist worldview, as described in Table 23, frees researchers from the constraints of competing worldviews, and is focused, instead, towards answering research questions. To most effectively meet the aims and objectives of this research, a mix of quantitative and qualitative methods was deemed necessary, rendering the pragmatist stance appropriate. The selection of a pragmatist approach is further supported through the use of mixed methods research within fields comparable to this research (see: Alexander et al. 2012; Arora and Stoner 2009; Davis et al. 2011; Holmes and Slater 2012; Vos et al. 2012) and responds to calls for a renewed focus on producing relevant, actionable research in the non-profit field (Bushouse and Sowa 2012). The appropriateness of a pragmatist stance for volunteer sector-oriented research is reinforced by Feilzer (2010 p. 14) who notes pragmatism can “enable researchers to enjoy the complexity and messiness of social life and revive a flagging sociological imagination”. The next section presents the research design used in this thesis, offering a consideration of dominant research approaches, before explaining the mixed methods approach used in this study.

4.4 Research Design

Social science research approaches are, to some extent, characterised by the opposing quantitative and qualitative research traditions (Creswell 2009). Given the pragmatist worldview adopted in this research, and the multi-method nature of the mixed method approach, the two dominant research approaches that come together will be discussed separately, before the specificities of mixed methods are offered.

4.5 Quantitative Research

Quantitative research is principally concerned with making empirically founded observations, logically conceived, regarding set phenomena (Bryman and Bell 2007; Easterby-Smith et al. 2012). It is common for quantitative researchers to employ computer software (e.g., IBM's SPSS), to aid in statistical analysis and determine (or disprove) statistically based support for relationships between constructs and concepts, within theoretical models - developed from pertinent literature - through an hypothesis testing process (Field 2009; Taheri et al. 2014b). The quantitative data is gathered in a codified, numerical form, usually via questionnaires distributed through internet/email, telephone, face-to-face, or postal mediums (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012; Taheri et al. 2015). Consequently, data is captured from a sample (i.e., respondents), derived from a wider population (a large group relevant to the research (Bryman and Bell 2007)) deemed as being appropriate to a study. The collected quantitative data should thus be representative of the characteristics of individual respondents and their questionnaire responses, various statistical calculations and tests are usually subsequently applied (Taheri et al. 2014b). Bryman and Bell (2007) suggest five stages of an ideal quantitative study which include:

- The construction of a questionnaire appropriate to the research question
- The collection of data from a sample of a relevant population via an appropriate medium
- The input and processing of data to a chosen statistical analysis software package
- Commencement of analysis, testing for statistically meaningful relationships within data collected from respondents
- Presentation of resultant findings

Deploying quantitative research methods in this research was considered useful in allowing the researcher to achieve a larger sample size than alternative approaches, and through ensuring exactly the same set of questions are presented to the respondent in a uniform manner, it is argued that greater comparability between respondents answers could be achieved (Bryman and Bell 2007). Furthermore, quantitative studies are suggested to be less susceptible to researcher bias allowing, hopefully, for more accurate generalisations of the wider population to be made as a result of this research (Bryman and Bell 2007; Creswell 2009). Conversely, the shortcomings of adopting a solely quantitative approach were identified as potentially resulting in a lack of richness of the ultimate research findings (Creswell 2009) which, given the early stage of research in this

area and the lack of understanding of brand heritage, was deemed inappropriate for this study.

4.5.2 *Qualitative research*

In contrast, qualitative research can pertain to collection and analysis of data from “...just about any form of human communication...” (Gibbs 2007 p. 2). Despite criticism from some areas of the research community suggesting qualitative research is, to some extent, of lesser value than quantitatively conducted research (MacIntosh and Bonnet 2007), Lochrie et al. (2015 p. 118) maintain qualitative research “...can yield valuable, revelatory, and rich data”. Qualitative research is, therefore, an established alternative research approach, interpretive in nature, and characterised by the intimate role played by the researchers in collecting and analysing data (Creswell 2009), gathered, often, from multiple sources including interviews, observations, and focus groups (Lochrie et al. 2015). Typically, qualitative research is conducted in the environment where the phenomenon of interest is occurring; thus, for certain studies qualitative research can elicit more accurate, detailed data (Creswell 2009; Marshall and Rossman 2010).

Unlike its quantitative counterpart, qualitative research tends to be more flexible in its design; while quantitative research conducted through surveys often uses a series of fixed, closed questions, qualitative research affords the researcher the opportunity to adjust interview questions or, indeed, the data collection techniques used, conducive to the emphasis of meanings held by participants, and the inductive analysis process used (Creswell 2009; Marshall and Rossman 2010). Similar to quantitative research, computer software can be used to aid the coding (i.e., organising the data) and analysis process (e.g., Leximancer, NVivo) but traditional techniques involving hand coding can also be used (Creswell 2009). In conducting and executing a successful qualitative research project, Creswell (2009) suggests inclusion of the following:

- Gathering and organising data from respondents appropriate to the study, for example, into interview transcripts
- Immersion of the researcher in the data, before coding of pertinent themes takes place
- Interpretation of themes and reflection upon the accuracy of the resultant information

Regarding generalisability, qualitative research is usually perceived as less appropriate than quantitative approaches (Gibbs 2007). Although Yin (2009) suggests methods to aid the extent to which qualitative research can be generalised, the inner strength of

qualitative research ultimately stems from its specific case focus, conducive to in-depth exploration of themes in a particular context, rather than the extent to which it can be generalised for wider populations (Creswell 2009; Gibbs 2007).

Consequently, in this research, a qualitative approach was deemed useful in generating a rich understanding of non-profit brand heritage, but less appropriate for examining its interplay with other theoretical concepts, and in advancing current conversations in the literature. Consequently, the merits of a mixed method approach are now considered.

4.5.3 *Mixed methods*

Alongside the two long-established qualitative and quantitative research methods, a third has more recently emerged, mixed-methods research (MMR) (Creswell 2009; Harrison and Reilly 2011; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009). MMR is sometimes confused with multi-method research (Creswell 2015), however, multi-method research pertains to the use of several methods from either a qualitative, or quantitative tradition, for example, using experimental and survey data, or utilising both interviews and observations (Creswell 2009; Creswell 2015), consequently MMR is defined by Creswell (2015 p. 2) as: “An approach to research in the social, behavioural, and health sciences in which the investigator gathers both quantitative (closed-ended) data, integrates the two, and then draws interpretations based on the combined strengths of both sets of data to understand research problems.”

Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) assert it is too simplistic to view methodological approaches as being distinct, clearly delineated or independent of one another, but rather posit a methodological continuum through which there are five areas of overlap, shown in Figure 5. Beginning with purely qualitative research, the authors present a second, primarily qualitative but marginally quantitative zone, before suggesting a third area of integrated qualitative and quantitative research. Moving towards the quantitative side of the continuum a fourth area, where research is predominantly quantitative but to a lesser extent qualitative, is presented; finally, a purely quantitative position is conveyed.

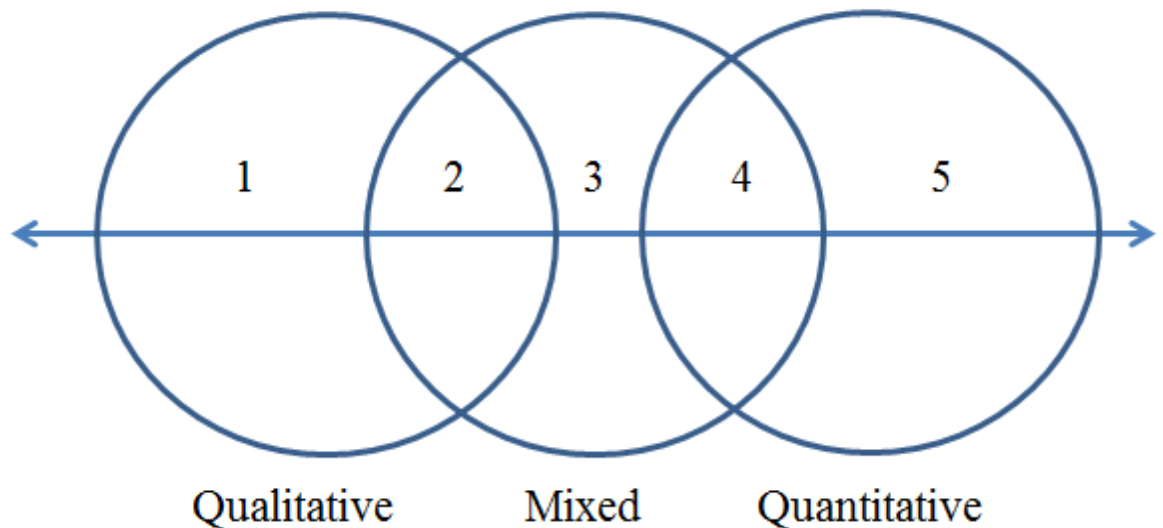


Figure 5: Qualitative, Mixed, and Quantitative Continuum

Source: Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009

Reflecting on the methodological mix adopted in this thesis, it could best be described as residing in the fourth area of Teddlie and Tashakkori's (2009) continuum predicated on a majority of data collected being quantitative, with some, although to a lesser degree, additional qualitative data.

MMR draws on techniques and experiences derived from diverse fields of research, including management, education, and psychology (Creswell 2009). The genesis of MMR approaches is traceable to the 1950s where, although only quantitatively, researchers mixed methods to ascertain levels of method variance, developing and deploying a multi-trait-multi-method matrix to that end (Campbell and Fiske 1959). Campbell and Fiske's (1959) work acted as an antecedent for subsequent quantitative and qualitative method mixing (Creswell 2009). Advancing such a notion, Jick (1979) advocated triangulation through mixed (both qualitative and quantitative) data. Jick (1979) held that when mixed, methods could variously complement one another's strengths and mitigate weaknesses; thus, MMR became more accepted as a way of improving research accuracy, design complexity, and resultant confidence in results. The development of MMR is identified by Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) to consist of five dominant stages, as described in Table 24, below.

Table 24: Development of Mixed Method Research

Adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark 2011 p. 23-25

Stage	Period	Description	Sample of Contributing Authors
Formative	1959-1979	Using multiple sources to study the one phenomenon is introduced to allow triangulation and greater validity.	Campbell and Fiske 1959; Cook and Reichardt 1979; Jick 1979; Sieber 1973
Paradigm Debate	1980-1997	MMR is viewed as a resolution to the paradigm debate, acting as a means to reconcile the other two opposing paradigmatic positions.	Bryman 1988; Greene and Caracelli 1997; Reichardt and Rallis 1994; Rossman and Wilson 1985
Procedural Development	1988-2000	MMR develops greater sophistication and rigour as a result of increasing academic attention.	Brewer and Hunter 1989; Bamberger 2000; Benz 1998; Bryman 1988; Creswell 1999; Greene et al. 1989, Morgan 1998; Morse 1991; Newman and Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998
Advocacy and Expansion	2003-ongoing	MMR is more strongly presented as an alternative to traditional research approaches than ever before, witnessing increased adoption among research various fields.	Creswell 2009; Greene 2007; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004; Morse and Niehaus 2009; Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009
Reflective	2003-ongoing	MMR is being subjected to increasing critical review, subsequently refined, and consolidated.	Creswell 2009; Greene 2008; Howe 2004; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2003

Encouraged by the aforementioned proponents, MMR continued its evolution. At present, and as Table 24 shows, MMR has advanced beyond triangulation and established itself as a sophisticated third research tradition, underpinned by robust philosophical assumptions (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009). MMR's acceptance is increasingly visible in academic journal articles (see: Alexander et al. 2012; Coulson et al. 2014; Hanson et al. 2005; Harrison and Reilly 2011; Holmes and Slater 2012; Ivankova et al. 2006; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004; Morgan 2007; Onwuegbuzie et al. 2009; Vos et al. 2012), and a multitude of MMR devoted textbooks (see: Creswell 2009; Creswell 2015; Creswell and Plano Clark 2011; Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003; Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009).

As Figure 6 shows, MMR incorporates both inductive and deductive approaches (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009), representing a response to the inductive-deductive research dichotomy. The general process of such research is illustrated by the inductive-deductive research cycle developed by Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) and is shown in Figure 5.

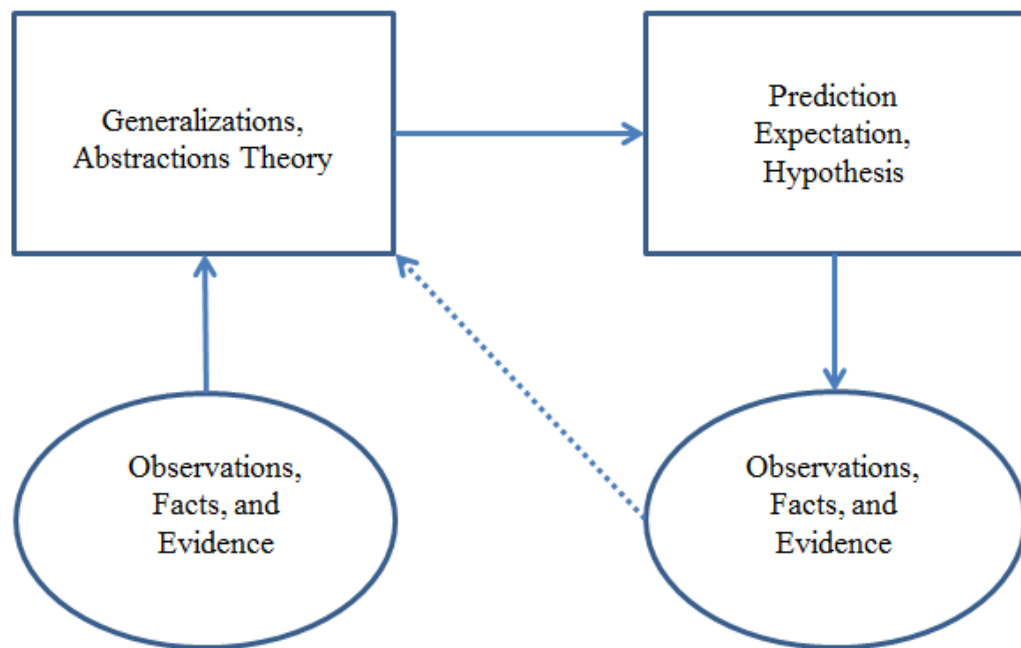


Figure 6: Inductive-Deductive Research Cycle (Cycle of scientific methodology)

Source: Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009 p. 27

Figure 6 is inclusive of the entire MMR cycle process, and shows how either the inductive, or deductive element of MMR can be undertaken first, an order determined by the state of research into the phenomenon of focus (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009).

Having established an understanding of MMR, and charted its development from inception to widely accepted method of inquiry, it is useful to consider the strengths and weaknesses of the approach deployed in this study. Table 25 describes potential strengths and weaknesses of MMR drawn from relevant literature.

Table 25: Strengths and Weaknesses of Mixed Method Research

Adapted from: Creswell 2015; Davis et al. 2011; Harrison and Reilly 2011; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009.

Strengths	Description	Weaknesses	Description
Added Texture and Sharpness	Pictorial, narrative and linguistic data can add depth of meaning to quantitative results. Adding quantitative results can hone precision of qualitative data.	Logistically Difficult	The logistics required to conduct MMR may prove beyond those of a single researcher, necessitating a research team.
Combined Benefits	Combining qualitative and quantitative data allows the researcher to enjoy the benefits of both research approaches.	Researcher Error	MMR requires in-depth knowledge of more than one research method, meaning it is more likely to be conducted wrongly than single method approaches.
Dual Outcomes	Researchers can both formulate, and then test grounded theory.	Cost	Conducting MMR is usually more expensive than traditional single approach research.
Broad scope	Researchers are better equipped to answer broad research questions using MMR.	Principled Resistance	Despite advances in recent decades, some researchers still maintain opposition to the principle of MMR, holding that research should adopt either purely qualitative or quantitative approaches. This is sometimes encountered in the publication review process.
Increased Generalisability	Using MMR approaches can give greater levels of generalisability to results.	Analysis Issues	Analysing MMR can be complex, and can encounter philosophical issues.
Greater Understanding	Can allow deeper, holistic understanding of pertinent phenomena than single method approaches.	Time Consuming	MMR is more time consuming than single method research, particularly where sequential research designs are used.
Forensic	Mitigates the risk of missing information pertinent to the research.	Bloated reporting	Due to the additional analysis required in MMR, reporting of results can be problematic due to tight journal word counts.
Robust results	Strengthens subsequent conclusions through the triangulation, convergence, or dissonance of research findings.	Information Overload	MMR can lead to the researcher collecting too much data which could distract from answering the research question.

As Table 25 highlights, MMR is no research panacea, nor should the value it can add to a research project be ignored or discounted on grounds of the challenges and demands it places upon the researcher. Given that in this case, the researcher is conducting the research project over three years as a primary occupation, none of the weaknesses of

MMR are deemed insurmountable. In fact, the added challenge and ultimate acquisition of new skills is considered in keeping with the PhD process, and speaks to its emphasis on personal and professional development. Having also established the positioning of this research within the qualitative-quantitative research continuum (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009), an appropriate MMR design that offers the benefits of a large sample, and is conducive to advancing the research community, while still offering a depth and richness of insight appropriate for little-understood areas, is presented in the following section.

4.5.4 *Justification and presentation of the research design*

The use of MMR in this thesis has been previously justified; however, within MMR there are five competing research designs, choosing and successfully employing the most appropriate design can significantly affect the success of a research project (Creswell 2009). Predominantly, MMR designs fall into the categories of sequential (the researcher completes the first data collection method and conducts analysis, before repeating the process with another data collection method and analysing the results), or concurrent (involving simultaneous collection and analysis of different data types) (Creswell 2009; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009). As MMR increases in sophistication, more nuanced designs have become established resulting in three distinct approaches: explanatory, exploratory, and transformative (Creswell 2009; Creswell and Plano Clark 2011). Explanatory designs are one of the most commonly used strategies, in part attributable to their relative simplicity (Creswell 2009; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009). Within an explanatory design, emphasis is usually placed upon the quantitative aspect of the study, before a smaller qualitative section attempts to build on the quantitative results, aiding the sense-making process (Creswell 2009; Morse 1991). Within this design, data is mixed when the quantitative results inform the qualitative element, allowing problems usually associated with data-type mixing to be navigated (Ivankova et al. 2006). The explanatory research design is particularly useful for explaining relationships between phenomena (Creswell 2009; Ivankova et al. 2006). Furthermore, an explanatory design is particularly conducive to reporting and describing research findings (Creswell 2009; Ivankova et al. 2006; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009).

In contrast to an explanatory research design, exploratory strategies generally place emphasis upon an initial qualitative phase of data collection that informs a subsequent, lighter, quantitative element (Creswell 2009; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009). Similar to the explanatory design, data mixing issues are mitigated as data is mixed at one point,

where the qualitative element's results link to the initiation of the quantitative section (Creswell 2009). An exploratory design is particularly conducive to instrument development, and has been used many times to that effect (Creswell 2009; Taheri et al. 2014a; Onwuegbuzie et al. 2010). Alternatively, explanatory designs can be useful to increase generalisability of qualitative studies, and can increase publication opportunities within quantitatively dominated research communities (Creswell 2009). Similar to explanatory designs, an exploratory approach can be time-consuming to complete, and necessitates placing the researcher in potentially difficult positions regarding selection of pertinent themes from one element to inform the next (Creswell 2009; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009).

The third sequential research design approach is transformative. A transformative strategy involves both quantitative and qualitative elements (in any order), with the latter building on the preceding element, weight can be distributed either equally or more heavily on one element (Creswell 2009; Hanson et al. 2005). This strategy tends to be influenced by a pervading theoretical lens which guides the study from its onset, thus tailoring the entire research project to, for example, enhance sensitivity in research with vulnerable groups (Creswell 2009; Hanson et al. 2005). Similar to other sequential research approaches, a transformative strategy can be time-consuming, and may not be well received within certain research communities; furthermore, Creswell (2009) notes that limited literature on transformative research designs has resulted in a lack of understanding of the approach.

Within the category of concurrent research designs, reside triangulation, embedded, and transformative designs. Concurrent triangulation designs are the most commonly applied of mixed methods designs (Creswell 2009; Youngs and Piggot-Irvine 2012). Here, a researcher commences data collection using both qualitative and quantitative sources, at the same time, and typically but not always of equal weighting (Creswell 2009). Subsequently, analysis of the two separate datasets can establish the extent of convergence or divergence in findings, allowing researchers to mitigate the weaknesses of both data types and produce arguably more robust findings (Creswell 2009; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009). This mixed method design benefits from a comparatively extensive supporting literature, while the concurrent nature of data collection allows for research to be conducted relatively quickly (Creswell 2009; Youngs and Piggot-Irvine 2012). This approach demands significant skill on behalf of the researcher in comparing different data sets, as discrepancies in results can weaken the robustness of a study (Creswell 2009).

An alternative concurrent design is found in an embedded approach. The embedded strategy is similar to the triangulation approach; however, there is a significantly greater emphasis on either the qualitative or quantitative data collection (Creswell 2009; Creswell and Plano Clark 2011; Plano Clark et al. 2013). Here, the embedded, less emphasised method can be used to answer differing research questions from the principal method (Creswell 2009; Plano Clark et al. 2013). An embedded approach can be particularly useful where multiple layers of an organisation require investigation (Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998), for example, where data is required from employees as well as board members, a quantitative method may be appropriate for the employee level, while a qualitative method is used to investigate views of board members. Ultimately, the concurrent embedded strategy affords researchers the opportunity to explore multiple layers of an organisation, within a shorter time-frame than sequential designs (Creswell 2009). Researchers should be aware of the need to carefully manage the complex transformation process of one type of data to the other, and ensure that the inequitable distribution of weight to each method is reflected in a study's results to maintain the integrity of a study (Creswell 2009; Plano Clark et al. 2013).

A final MMR design approach is the concurrent transformative strategy. This approach is similar to the sequential transformative model, in that it is guided by a dominating theoretical perspective, and shares many of the applications, benefits, and disadvantages, whilst differing through simultaneous application of two data collection methods (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011; Hanson et al. 2005). Further, this approach can be useful in exploring multiple layers of an organisation (Creswell 2009).

Creswell (2009) presents a series of recommendations that can assist researchers in selecting an appropriate research design, placing emphasis on:

- Time required for data collection
- Time required for data analysis
- Pre-existing skills of the researcher to undertake research within a set design

Responding to Creswell's (2009) concerns, it was deemed that data collection and analysis within the required time-frame of this thesis would not be problematic; furthermore, the researcher already had a background in both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis, which was supplemented by additional training. Furthermore, given the lack of understanding regarding how brand heritage could manifest in a volunteer context, and its effect upon volunteers, conducting quantitative questionnaires using established survey instruments, followed-up with a small number of

informed qualitative interviews was deemed the most appropriate approach to answering the research question. Consequently, informed by the preceding discussion of research designs, associated benefits and costs, and Creswell's (2009) design selection advice, a sequential explanatory research design is deemed the most appropriate for this thesis and is illustrated in Figure 7 below.

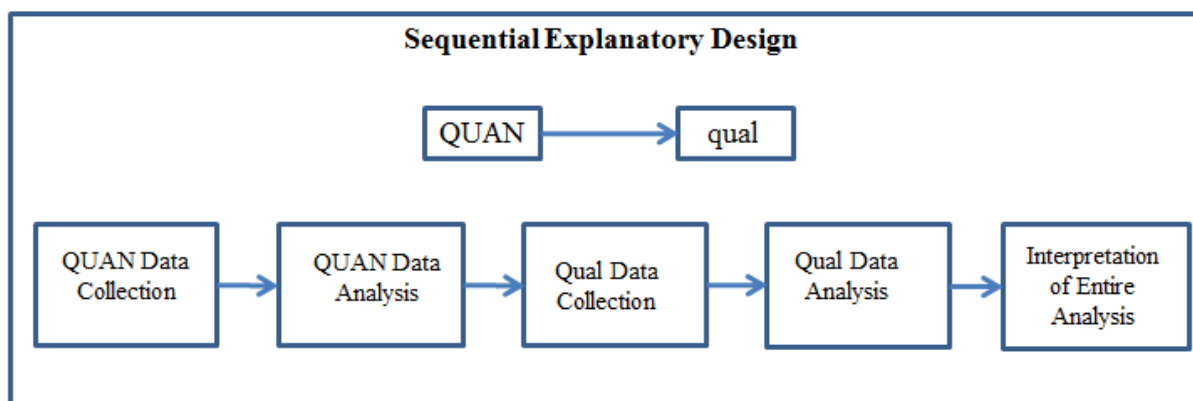


Figure 7: Sequential Explanatory Design

As Figure 7 shows, this research initially involves the collection of quantitative survey data before it is analysed, the analysis of the quantitative data is followed by lesser weighted in-depth interviews, which are analysed qualitatively, allowing for added depth of understanding to be elicited, and to better achieve the research aims and objectives. The research design employed in this thesis leads on to presentation of first the quantitative results and, subsequently, the qualitative results. Both these sets of results are then combined and conveyed through discussion of findings. The next sections present in detail the specificities of the data collection process, commencing with the principal survey.

4.5.5 Data mixing: Combining quantitative and qualitative data

An inherent element of any mixed method study, is the necessity for the researcher to 'mix', or integrate the data (Bryman 2007; Creswell 2015), indeed Bazeley (2009 p. 204) notes how "mixed methods research involves, as a minimum, integrating conclusions that are drawn from various strands in the research". Essentially, this process denotes the unification of different data types, commensurate with the research design employed (Creswell 2015). Although mixed methods studies are becoming increasingly popular (Bryman 2006), illumination of the processes and procedures required for successful mixing of quantitative and qualitative data "has been marginalised in much writing on mixed methods research" (Bryman 2007 p. 8). Consequently, the issue of integrating quantitative and qualitative elements of mixed methods studies continues to be a source of contention, and challenge for mixed methods researchers (Bryman 2007). Despite

readers being able to infer the data integration process through the preceding sections, the process will now be clarified and communicated explicitly in order to avoid some traditional criticisms of vagueness, and opaqueness in reporting of mixed methods research (Bryman 2007).

Despite the paucity of literature, Creswell (2015) suggests researchers can integrate methods at various points of the research process, for example:

- During data collection
- Within the data analysis
- Within discussion of results

The position of data mixing should ultimately be determined by the research design, and occur in a logical position conducive to producing robust research (Bryman 2007). For example, the explanatory sequential design followed in this research and illustrated in Figure 8 shows data mixing should logically occur in two places; tacitly after analysis of the quantitative results in order to guide the qualitative data collection and analysis but, most predominantly, within the discussion chapter of the thesis. These were deemed the most appropriate stages at which to mix the primary quantitative, and secondary, lesser weighted qualitative results. Points of data integration are illustrated in Figure 8 below.

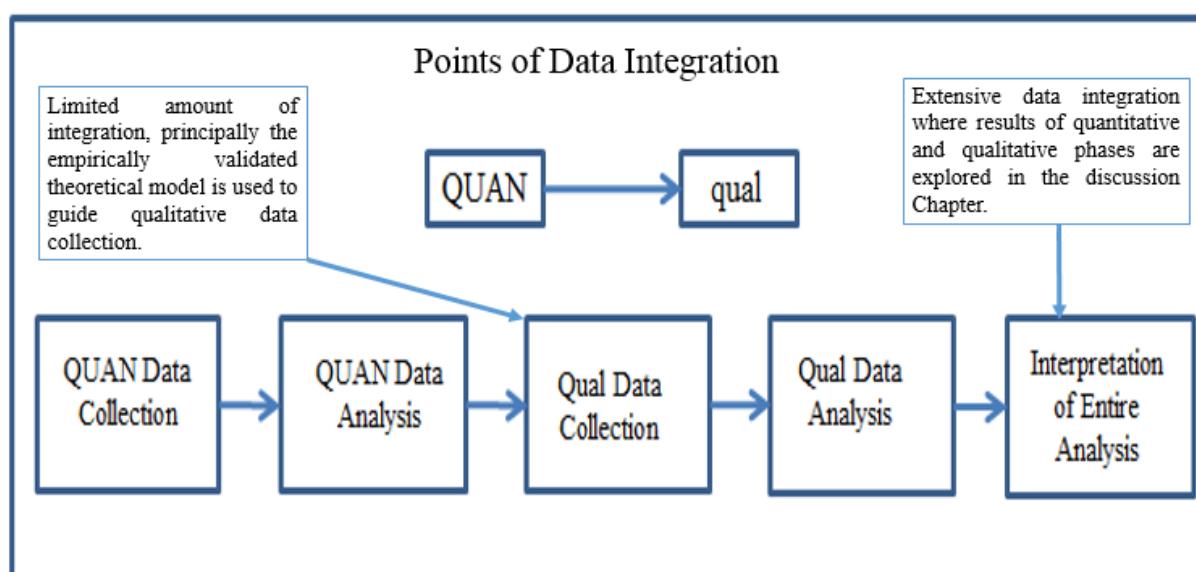


Figure 8: Data Integration Points

The expansion of mixed methods integration literature has been characterised by the development of multiple mixed methods research frameworks which include exploratory, explanatory and concurrent designs (see section:4.5.4), and lend some degree of gravitas and rigour to the research approach (Creswell 2015; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009). However, Bryman (2007 p. 99) contests that “the formalisation of approaches to multi-

strategy research through typologies has moved too far ahead of a systematic appreciation of how quantitative and qualitative research are combined in practice”, highlighting the limitations in our understanding of the practicalities of the data mixing process. To help guide further mixed methods research reporting, Bryman (2007) identifies nine barriers to mixed methods integration; the barriers are described along with their relevance to this research, as well as approaches employed to surmount them where necessary in Table 26 below.

Table 26: Barriers to Mixed Method Integration

Adapted from Bryman 2007

Barrier	Description	Relevance and researcher strategy
Audiences	The integration process can be influenced by the ultimate audience for the research. For example, a quantitatively oriented audience can encourage the researcher to only integrate, or report the integration of qualitative elements of the study to a limited extent.	Audience preference is not a concern in this research, given that it takes the form of a PhD thesis and not principally developed for explicit dissemination amongst managers, or for publication purposes. The primary audience will be its examiners and future readers.
Method Bias	Researcher's own methodological bias can influence the mixing of quantitative and qualitative data.	Method bias was not a concern as time and resources ensured the researcher could become competent in both methods. The researcher possesses no innate method bias.
Structural Constraints	The overall structure of the research can impede mixing of data where external factors influence the project.	Given the nature of this research project, the topic and structure is not set externally.
Time Constraints	The different speeds at which quantitative and qualitative research can be conducted and analysed can affect the quality, and volume of analysis.	Time constraints particularly affect teams who have additional time demands (e.g., lectureships, other research projects). This is not a concern as this project represented the principal occupation.
Researcher Skillset	A lack of particular specialism in particular types of analysis and research can limit data integration. Researchers tend to focus on the elements they are most skilled in.	The researcher was supervised throughout the analysis by active academic researchers with specialisms in a broad range of research and analysis techniques. Furthermore, the researcher possesses experience in publishing both qualitative and quantitative oriented journal articles.
Data Characteristics	The findings of one data set may prove more noteworthy than the other. Researchers can be tempted to then curtail consideration of the less interesting research element.	As this study adopts a sequential mixed method explanatory design, the quantitative phase guides a smaller second phase which seeks to add a further layer of richness to the study.
Philosophical Issues	Some researchers can find it challenging to integrate data commensurate with opposing ontological and epistemological standpoints.	The adoption of a pragmatist stance mitigates this issue for the researcher, as it justifies integrating quantitative and qualitative data with emphasis on the research outcomes.
Publication Demands	The paucity of mixed methods articles published in esteemed journals can encourage researchers to focus predominantly on either quantitative or qualitative studies.	Given this is a PhD thesis publication demands are not a primary concern. A leading non-profit sector journal publishes mixed method research (e.g., Holmes and Slater 2012).
Limited Examples	Limited examples of best practice data integration have stifled the development of mixed methods research.	While there are fewer examples of mixed methods integration than other research approaches, guidance was received from a supervisory team, and multiple academic sources (e.g., Bryman 2007; Creswell 2009).

Thus, Table 26 illustrates how the common barriers to successful mixed methods research integration, identified by Bryman (2007), were of little concern to this study, nevertheless, the researcher remained aware of them, and vigilant to their potential effects throughout the research process.

Ultimately, mixed methods research could benefit from further investigation, and more detailed presentation of best practice approaches to integrating data. In this study, the quantitative and qualitative phases were analysed separately although the quantitative phase guided the qualitative phase's collection and analysis; both elements were then mixed at the discussion stage in relation to the theoretical underpinnings of the research. Nevertheless, this research, grounded upon a pragmatist philosophy, adheres to currently prevailing research consensus, and follows a logical order that contributes to enriching the value of the resulting conclusions and managerial implications (Creswell 2009; Creswell 2015), therefore justifying the research design followed in this thesis

4.5.6 Methodological approaches used in non-profit research

Within non-profit sector research, a variety of methodological approaches have been used successfully, although as with its for-profit counterpart, some methodological approaches have benefitted from more extensive application than others (Musick and Wilson 2008; Wilson, 2012). Nevertheless, examples of robust qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods research can be readily identified in the leading non-profit research journal (according to the Association of Business Schools (ABS) list). Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly (NVSQ), is a 3 star ranked (ABS) publication, and has been published since 1972. Table 27 presents a selection of example qualitative articles from the NVSQ in 2016.

Table 27: Qualitative Methodological Application in Non-profit Research

Citation	Methodological Approach	Data Source	Analysis Technique
McNamee and Peterson 2015	Qualitative	Semi-structured interviews.	Thematic analysis.
Chenhall, Hall and Smith 2015	Qualitative	Case study approach including in-depth interviews and data.	Thematic analysis.
Ljubownikow and Crotty 2016	Qualitative	Semi-structured interviews.	Thematic analysis.
Child 2016	Qualitative	Semi-structured interview, observational data, and informal interviews	Thematic analysis.

As Table 27 illustrates, qualitative research is well represented in the NVSQ, thus incorporating a qualitative element into the research was not a concern. Most commonly, qualitative research examples in the NVSQ incorporated semi-structured interviews (Ljubownikow and Crotty 2016; McNamee and Peterson 2016) but some also incorporate additional qualitative research sources such as observational data (Child 2016). Typically, qualitative research in the NVSQ applied techniques classifiable as forms of thematic analysis to the data, which is closely linked to template analysis used in this study (King 2004; 2012).

There is also a strong tradition of quantitative research in the non-profit field. A selection of recent articles from NVSQ is presented in Table 28.

Table 28: Quantitative Methodological Application in Non-profit Research

Citation	Methodological Approach	Data Source	Analysis Technique
Studer 2016	Quantitative	Online questionnaire.	Principal component analysis
De Wit and Bekkers 2016	Quantitative	Panel data	Bivariate/multivariate regression
Wymer and Rundle-Thiele 2016	Quantitative	Survey Data	Partial Least Squares (PLS)
Winter and Thaler 2016	Quantitative	Large-scale survey data	Multi-nominal logit model approach.

As Table 28 illustrates, quantitative approaches have been applied to non-profit focused research during 2016 in the NVSQ. Research utilises panel data (gathered longitudinally) (De Wit and Bekkers 2016), cross-sectional online questionnaires (Studer, 2016) and data from large-scale surveys. Analysis has been conducted through a range of statistical analysis techniques, including the PLS approach adopted in this research (Wymer and Rundle-Thiele 2016).

Although there are fewer examples of the application of mixed method approaches published in NVSQ in 2016 (see Kim 2016), the approach has been applied in previous years in NVSQ (Holmes and Slater 2012), but also in non-profit research in other ABS ranked academic journals such as *Voluntas* (see Vos et al. 2012) (ABS two star) and in journals without a specific non-profit focus such as the *Journal of Product and Brand Management* (see Arora and Stoner 2009). Kim (2016) uses a combination of semi-structured interviews and surveys, as do Holmes and Slater (2012) who use a sequential, explanatory design comparable with that used in this study. Vos et al. 2012 emphasise the quantitative element of their study, using the qualitative element to triangulate

findings, and results, while Arora and Stoner (2009) utilise survey and in-depth interview approaches in a concurrent design study.

It should be noted that the more limited application of mixed method approaches is not unique to non-profit research, but that mixed method research tends to be conducted less often than its qualitative and quantitative cousins within the business research setting (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003). In part, this could be attributable to restrictive journal word counts discouraging such submissions. What the previously discussed examples of mixed methods research do demonstrate is its acceptance within the non-profit school of literature; thus, the mixed methods approach applied in this research can be viewed as commensurate with, and complementary to, current academic research practice related to the non-profit sector.

4.6 Phase I: Survey

Towards answering the main aim of the study, and in keeping with the research philosophy and mixed methods approach taken in this research, a large scale survey was deemed an appropriate quantitative data collection technique. This position is further justified through the extensive use of surveys in non-profit sector research (Lin and Van Ryzin 2012), as well as the pertinence of a survey method towards answering the aims and objectives set out in chapter one. Consequently, this section begins by presenting the strategy used for the questionnaire; next, achieving a representative sample and sample size is discussed before consideration regarding design, wording and content of the questionnaire is made; finally, a brief discussion of the pilot study is offered.

4.6.1 Strategy for the questionnaire survey: Method of completion

An online questionnaire was used in this research, distributed via the Scouts email system directing respondents to an online questionnaire hosted by the survey engine Qualtrics. Qualtrics was deemed an appropriate survey engine over alternatives such as Survey Monkey, as it offers an intuitive way to develop dynamic online surveys; thus, a lengthy software training and familiarisation process could be minimised. Additionally, Qualtrics can be used to develop online questionnaires appropriate for various hardware, and software platforms (e.g., tablet, smartphone, internet browser) making it more convenient for respondents to complete. Furthermore, Qualtrics allows the researcher to import the questionnaire response data into analysis software electronically, thus avoiding a time-consuming manual data input process, while also minimising risks of human error (Evans and Mathur 2005). Recently, Qualtrics software was used successfully in a study of

1,539 prospective donors to charity organisations, demonstrating its ability to be conducive to, and appropriate for, large sample sizes (Zheng and McKeever, 2016).

The questionnaire was distributed over three months commencing in late May 2014; as the questionnaire was in electronic form, and two reminder/prompting e-mails were agreed to be sent, three months was deemed an appropriate length of time. There are two principal types of questionnaires: explanatory and descriptive (Oppenheim 2000). Explanatory questionnaires are designed with the aim of explaining causal relationships and their effects, and therefore commonly used to test research hypotheses (Oppenheim 2000). Alternatively, descriptive questionnaires are solely designed to capture characteristics that are held by proportions of a population (Saunders et al. 2007). Thus, in this research, where relationships between various theoretical constructs are being explored, an explanatory survey design was used. Of the multiple survey methods, online surveys are particularly useful for collecting data on a large scale, as the questions are asked of multiple participants, in a uniform manner, with reduced risk of human interference (Oppenheim 2000). A variety of methods are available for conducting surveys, for example, they may be completed face-to-face, via telephone survey, through postal services or, increasingly, through a web-based medium (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012). Attributes of four survey methods are outlined in Table 29 below.

Table 29: Survey Method Attributes

Adapted from: Duffy et al. 2005; Evans and Mathur 2005; Lin and Van Ryzin 2012; Taheri et al. 2014.

Survey Method	Attributes
Face-to-face	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Completed by interviewer • Can be costly if a large sample is required • Respondents participation is public • Participants have little control over the setting of timing of survey completion
Telephone	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Completed by interviewer • Can be costly if a large sample is required • Limited to owners, and answerers of telephones • Limited to telephone numbers available • Can be perceived as intrusive, consequently, has reducing response rates
Postal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Completed by respondent • Can be costly if large samples are required (postage/return costs) • Costly and time consuming to print, prepare, send and receive a large amount of surveys • Subsequent data input is time consuming • Increased risk of data input error
Web-based	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Completed by respondent • Associated with a low cost • Distribution, collection, and data input can be much faster than alternatives • Limited to respondents with internet access • Can be completed at respondents convenience

Considering the attributes of the survey methods shown in Table 29 above, an online web-based survey, distributed through the Scouts membership email system was deemed most appropriate for this research for following reasons. Taheri et al. (2014b) emphasise the importance of selecting a survey approach that is realistic in relation to cost and time; as a large sample was being targeted, using questionnaires distributed online represented a significantly reduced cost in both time and money when compared to postal, telephone, and face-to-face alternatives. Time considerations were given additional attention in this study as demanded by the explanatory sequential research design used, thus supporting the use of a web-based survey (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009).

Web-based surveys have become increasingly preferred over traditional methods in tandem with the proliferation of internet access amongst the general population (Bachmann et al. 1996; Wright 2005). Towards limiting non-responses, literature suggests online surveys present only one question per screen, should incorporate a progress bar denoting extent of survey completion, and can benefit from being calibrated

to require answers from respondents before they can progress (Brace 2008; Evans and Mathur 2005). The respondent should, if possible, not have the ability to revisit previously answered questions, thus encouraging the collection of an initial, genuine answer (Brace 2008). The survey strategy in this research followed this guidance, with the addition of a 'no-opinion' option included in-line with a majority of online survey research (Stieger et al. 2007). Given the research targeted volunteers, who already give their time freely to the Scouts, using an online internet survey which could be completed at the respondent's convenience, was deemed less intrusive than telephone, or face-to-face alternatives (Taheri et al. 2014b).

The Scouts email database was more accurate than records of member addresses, in part attributable to the high number of younger Scout volunteers who are likely to be engaged in higher education, thus changing home address more frequently; however, the researcher had to balance this with the possibility that some Scout volunteers may have changed e-mail address or, indeed, committed to rarely checking their e-mail inboxes. An inherent weakness of survey research is its inability to always capture, exactly, the feelings of the respondent (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias 2007); despite this, however, it offers the potential to gather a large amount of data, especially when using a web-based survey, in a cost and time effective way. Within the wider non-profit research community, Lin and Van Ryzin (2012) find online surveys suffer from a lower response rate than their more costly, postal-counterparts. Nevertheless, web-based surveys were deemed the most appropriate and, indeed, workable data collection method to deploy.

4.6.2 Achieving a representative sample of volunteers and sample

Towards ensuring a representative sample of the population under investigation, purposive sampling was deemed an appropriate sampling protocol to employ. Broadly speaking, there are two sampling categories, probability, and non-probability (Saunders et al. 2007), although the interchangeable use of terminology by some researchers contributes to a degree of confusion (see Teddlie and Yu 2007). Within these categories reside nine sampling techniques shown in Table 30.

Table 30: Sampling Approaches

Adapted from: Taheri et al. 2014

Sampling Category	Technique	Description
Probability	Multi-stage Cluster	A population is divided into groups (or clusters); each member of a cluster(s) is then sampled.
	Stratified Random	A large population is divided into smaller strata, which then constitute the final sample; e.g., Volunteering status.
	Simple Random	Every unit of a population has an equal chance of participation, often populations are geographically concentrated.
	Systematic	Similar to simple random sampling, but uses a more organised approach where data is gathered from samples at intervals, e.g., sampling every fifth visitor to tourist sites.
Non-probability	Quota	A minimum acceptable number of samples are set by the researcher for various quota categories. Quota categories are organised on characteristics to uncover variables, as distributed through a population.
	Expert	The researchers targets experts, with an experiences and expertise in a particular area.
	Snowball	Informal/formal networks that are difficult to otherwise penetrate, or investigate, can be explored using this technique. Researchers begin with a point of contact, who then introduces the study to other relevant parties.
	Purposive	A deliberate decision is made by the researcher over the involvement of particular units to study.
	Convenience	Guided by the proximity of potential respondents to the researcher, and the ease at which completion of surveys can be achieved.

As Table 30 illustrates, probability sampling designs represent designs where the likelihood of each sample entity being included in a sample is known (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012). Probability sampling techniques are suggested to yield results that are representative of the relationship between sample and population (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012). Non-probability sampling, then, pertains to a research design where the likelihood of a sample entity being included in a sample is unknown, thus, it can reduce the confidence at which researchers can make inferences from samples regarding a population (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012; Teddlie and Yu 2007; de Vaus 2014). In other words, non-probability sampling includes an element of randomness in selection of respondents which can detract from generalisability, while probability sampling does not. In defence of non-probability sampling designs is their ability to yield large sample sizes which can be conducive to producing robust and accurate results, at comparatively low financial and time-related cost (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012).

Within this research, access was negotiated and granted to the Scouts, thus, what can be described as a purposive sampling approach providing access to only Scout volunteers on the central e-mail list in Scotland was employed. Consequently, purposive sampling – a

non-probability sampling method – allowed for the efficient targeting of as large a sample as possible (when time and cost considerations were evaluated) of Scout volunteers (as opposed to a probability sample which would include volunteers from numerous organisations), from across Scotland, through the Scouts e-mail system.

4.6.3 Representativeness of the sample and sample size

When conducting research, the researcher must ensure the acquisition of an adequately representative sample, if any meaningful inferences are to be derived from it (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012). Thus, sample size is heavily affected by cost, time, confidence interval calculations, interview bias (where certain types of respondent are repeatedly targeted), sampling error (larger samples, will reduce sampling error levels), non-responses, and degree of accuracy required (increases in tandem with sample size) (Bryman and Bell 2007).

Over a three-month period commencing in May 2014, a sample of 1,248 Scout volunteers was obtained after exclusion of partially completed questionnaires. All the completed questionnaires were then included in the study. As the questionnaire was constructed and hosted using the data collection website “Qualtrics”, and distributed via the Scouts email system linking volunteers to Qualtrics, Scout volunteers with limited internet access or IT skills would have found it difficult to complete the survey. Nevertheless, using Qualtrics allowed for a large amount of data to be collected at relatively low cost, furthermore, web-hosted survey sites afford the researcher the opportunity to download and import the collected data in a time-efficient manner into subsequent data analysis software such as SPSS and PLS - avoiding the need to manually input data and reducing the risk of human error (Brace 2008). To encourage a high response rate, a prize draw was organised and implemented. The prize draw, as well as endorsement from senior Scout officials, in tandem with the volunteers being asked about their experiences volunteering for an organisation to which they are likely committed, resulted in a relatively high response rate of 19.2% being achieved (e.g., the percentage of completed surveys in relation to the number of prospective Scout volunteer respondents). This response rate is deemed acceptable as the online survey response rate was similar to related studies utilising related approaches, for example research on volunteers by Harp et al. (2016) who reported a response rate of 12.6%, thus, supporting suggestions in the literature that response rates for online surveys are comparable to their postal counterparts (Alan 1998). The high response rate thus vindicated earlier decisions to distribute the questionnaire

electronically, and suggests that the number of potential respondents for whom internet access or IT literacy skills impeded completion of the questionnaire was minimal.

Pertaining to sample size, there is surprisingly little agreement regarding what constitutes an appropriate sample size in the literature (Taheri et al. 2014b). Arguments that smaller sample sizes reduce generalisability have resulted in minimum size suggestions of around 200 (Hair et al. 2010; Veal 2006). One suggestion that receives the strongest consensus within the sample size debate is that it is research dependent, and thus has no universal answer (Bryman and Bell 2007). However, generally speaking, larger sample sizes will yield more accurate results (Taheri et al. 2014b) and can enhance the statistical power of structural equation modelling tests (McQuitty 2004). The sample size used in this research of 1,248 Scout volunteers in Scotland is, therefore, deemed appropriate. Although it is conceded that using a larger sample, gathered over a longer period of time, at multiple voluntary organisations rather than one, would have yielded more generalisable results, a sample of 1,248 respondents represents a suitable size from which meaningful data analysis through statistical techniques can be conducted, and inferences regarding theory drawn (Hair et al. 2010; de Vaus 2014). The specific characteristics of the sample obtained will be discussed in the next chapter.

4.6.4 Questionnaire design, wording and content

The complexity inherent in questionnaire design has led to the process being described as “...an art in itself” (Taheri et al. 2015 p. 167), thus constructing a successful questionnaire demands significant consideration. To fully capitalise on the benefits of a questionnaire instrument, the researcher must ensure the survey is carefully constructed in a manner conducive to clarity of understanding, while minimising risk of bias as far as possible, towards allowing for elicitation of accurate responses (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012). Typically, questionnaires incorporate a combination of both factual (e.g., gender, age, occupation) as well as behavioural (e.g., exploring relationships conveyed via the conceptual model) questions (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias 2007), a convention followed in this research, and in keeping with the ultimate goal of a questionnaire, to acquire data appropriate for hypothesis testing in keeping with research objectives (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias 2007). Furthermore, the constructed questionnaire was carefully and thoughtfully formatted to ensure a logical sequence of questions were clearly presented, formatting techniques such as the use of italics were used in a consistent and appropriate manner as suggested by Bryman and Bell (2007). Prior to distributing the questionnaire, a pilot study was conducted (see section: 4.6.8)

Maintaining appropriate survey length is a challenging yet essential part of effective survey design if the researcher is to avoid overwhelming the respondent. As a result, the questionnaire used in this research was restricted to four pages, and an accurate guidance completion time of 15 minutes given in the opening statement. The survey design followed prevailing best practice which dictates that the opening questions in a survey should stimulate respondent engagement, while categorising questions; and those of a personal nature should be asked towards the end (Bryman and Bell 2007; Gaddis 1998). Furthermore, five principles described by Easterby-Smith et al. (2012) representing good practice in the wording of survey design questions governed this research. These are described in Table 31 below.

Table 31: Survey Question Principles

Adapted from Easterby-Smith et al. 2012.

Principle	Explanation
Focus	Each item in a survey should relate to a single idea. Thus ensuring clarity of communication is enhanced as far as possible, and the ability for the researchers to interpret responses.
Clarity of language	The use of subject specific language should be avoided. Plain, widely understood language should be used to ensure respondents understand the questions asked.
Simple expressions	The use of an active tense can increase ease in understanding of questions. Long sentences should be avoided and broken up where possible.
Avoid negatives	Where possible, avoiding the use of negatives can enhance accuracy of a respondents understanding, especially when read quickly. Furthermore, this improves commensurability with Likert scales, rendering the response process clearer.
No leading questions	Leading questions influence the respondent's answers, and can significantly damage the validity of a research project.

Ultimately, as suggested by Oppenheim (2000) the distributed questionnaire was formulated in order to avoid the corruption of respondents' true thoughts. Furthermore, a logical structure was adopted and the survey worded to minimise the possibility of causing offense or exclusion to respondents, particularly when requesting gender, religious, education attainment, and income information. Consequently, such questions were included towards the end of the questionnaire, and included to allow for additional insights into the characteristics of Scout volunteers to be developed.

4.6.5 Defining the individual constructs and background information

The questionnaire commenced with an initial screening statement which ensured the respondent was currently a serving volunteer with the Scouts. The questionnaire was comprised of seven theoretical constructs deemed pertinent to the research goal and subsequent hypotheses testing, in keeping with established practice (Hair et al. 2010). These were derived and justified through engagement with the relevant literature. All the

theoretical constructs in this research were explored via multi-item as opposed to single-item scales. Concerns regarding the weakness of single-item scales within marketing and management research were first raised by Jacoby (1978), stimulating a growing research convention of using multi-item measures as standard (Diamantopoulos et al. 2012). While a small number of authors continue to caution against using multi-item scales only, the principal arguments against them centre on respondent, and subsequent researcher convenience, i.e., analysing fewer variables and reduced data cleaning time (Bergkvist and Rossiter 2007). Although multiple-item scales require the respondent to provide more responses (Bergkvist and Rossiter 2007), they generally ensure collection of more robust, accurate, and reliable data (Diamantopoulos et al. 2012). Principally, there are two main theoretical justifications for employing multi-item rather than single-item measures. First, multi-item scales are, by their nature, more reliable than single-item alternatives, through offering the possibility to check for correlation between items and determine internal consistency of responses (Diamantopoulos et al. 2012; Peter 1979). Secondly, multi-item scales are able to collect more information regarding the various facets of complex constructs (Baumgartner and Homburg 1996). Following from this, the questionnaire in this research employed multi-item scales, a decision validated by the number of responses collected. The questionnaire structure and constituent theoretical constructs were structured as follows.

Brand heritage

Volunteer perceptions of the Scouts brand heritage were measured using a formative scale developed by Wiedmann et al. (2011a) and originally applied to the luxury automotive industry. The scale uses 15-items to measure brand heritage pertaining to constituent elements; continuity, success images, bonding, orientation, cultural value, cultural meaning, imagination, familiarity, myth, credibility, knowledge, identity value, identity meaning, differentiation and finally, prestige (see appendix 2). To ensure the scale was easily understood by Scout volunteers, the statements were operationalised to best suit Scout terminology. This process was carefully conducted, and was based on the results of panel discussion amongst colleagues within Heriot-Watt University Department of Business Management. Consequently, respondents indicated levels of agreement regarding statements pertaining to the branding of the Scouts. To allow for testing of external validity, an additional 'global item' encapsulating the essence of the scale was devised and included in the questionnaire, this process is further explained in section 5.5.4. Wiedmann et al. (2011a) used a five-point Likert scale.

Communitas

To measure the communitas construct, the research employed a reflective four-item, one-factor scale developed by McGinnis et al. (2008). The scale represents a culmination of preceding communitas oriented literature including contributions from Turner (1969) and Belk et al. (1989). While the scale was originally developed for application to a golfing context it was operationalised for this study to be appropriate to volunteers. Again, to ensure this process was successful, it was informed by panel discussion between the researcher and colleagues at Heriot-Watt University. Ultimately, respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement with the statements. McGinnis et al. (2008) employed a seven-point Likert scale, the scale used in this research is shown in Appendix 3: Phase 1 Questionnaire.

Brand image

This section comprised of a four-dimensional, higher-order scale developed by Michel and Rieunier (2012) to measure perceptions of brand image: efficiency, usefulness, affect and dynamism. The scale represents a 14-item measure. The scale was operationalised to enhance its appropriateness to respondents who were Scout volunteers through panel discussion with Heriot-Watt University colleagues. Consequently, respondents indicated their levels of agreement towards statements relating to the brand image of the Scouts. Finally, Michel and Rieunier (2012) developed their measure of brand image using a five-point Likert scale. The operationalised version of the scale used in this research is shown in Appendix 3.

Volunteer work engagement

Volunteer work engagement was measured using a scale developed by Schaufeli et al. (2002) and subsequently operationalised for, and applied to a volunteer context by Vecina et al. (2012). The measure is commonly referred to as the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, and has emerged as one of the most popular measures of work engagement (Cole et al. 2012). Given the desire to ensure the survey was as concise in length as possible, the reduced nine-item version of the scale developed by Schaufeli et al. (2006) was used. This version has enjoyed wide application and has demonstrated validity and reliability in volunteer oriented research (Chacón 2007; Schie et al. 2014; van, Seppälä et al. 2009; Vecina et al. 2012; Vecina et al. 2013). Upon completing panel discussions with Heriot-Watt University colleagues it was decided that the scale was already contextualised enough to negate the need for further operationalisation. The continuous reflective measure comprises of three factors: absorption, vigour, and dedication, and is shown in

Appendix 3. Respondents were invited to rate their level of agreement regarding statements indicative of their engagement with the Scouts. Lastly, Schaufeli et al. (2002) developed their scale using a seven-point Likert type scale.

Affective commitment

Affective commitment represents one factor of an originally tri-factor measure (Allen and Meyer 1990; Meyer and Allen 1991). As supported by the literature (see section 3.12), and in keeping with recent prior studies exploring volunteer commitment, this research focuses only on affective commitment (Ohana et al. 2013; Stride and Higgs 2013). The affective commitment measure used was originally developed by Allen and Meyer (1990), and subsequently applied numerous (Astakhova 2016; Lee et al. 2001; Meyer et al. 2012), including in volunteer settings (Boezeman and Ellemers 2007; Dawley et al. 2005). The measure items were operationalised to better suit Scout volunteers, this process was informed by panel discussions between Heriot-Watt University Department of Management colleagues and the researcher. Consequently, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with regard to their affective commitment towards the Scouts. In their original scale, Allen and Meyer (1990) used a seven-point Likert type scale. The operationalised version of the scale used in this research is shown in Appendix 3.

Satisfaction with management

Satisfaction with management was measured using an eight-item scale developed by (Jiménez et al. 2009) for a volunteer context. The measure has since been used to evaluate volunteer satisfaction in numerous volunteer focused research projects (Chacón 2007; Vecina et al. 2013). The scale items were operationalised to enhance their relevance to the Scout respondents; this process was influenced by the opinion of colleagues from Heriot-Watt University Department of Business Management to ensure the integrity of the scale items was maintained. Subsequently, respondents indicated their level of agreement pertaining to their satisfaction towards the management of the Scouts. Furthermore, the measure developed by Jiménez et al. (2009) employed a seven-point Likert scale. The satisfaction with management scale used in this research is shown in Appendix 3.

Demographic information

This section of the survey sought to collect data in order to provide a profile of each respondent. Demographic questions included age, gender, education, and religion. The

inclusion of these four questions allowed the researcher to garner deeper understanding of the theoretical model, and determine additional influencing factors through analysing respondent demographic information; specifically, whether age, gender, education, and religion influence respondents' volunteering. These questions were formatted in a closed response structure, and can be identified in the questionnaire questions 8, 9, 10, and 11 in Appendix 3.

4.6.6 Likert-scales and reverse scored items

The design of the survey, and the design of its questions (e.g., open-ended questions, multiple choice questions, dichotomous questions, Likert-scales) can influence the breadth, quality, and usability of data gathered (Field 2009). Likert-scales are one question type that afford the researcher the opportunity to collect data relating to a respondent's attitudes on a set issue, yielding an ultimately interval measurement, usually determining the extent respondents 'agree' or 'disagree' with a statement (Allen and Seaman 2007; Carifio and Perla 2007; Field 2009). Likert-scales allow respondents to rate the strength or weakness of their agreement on a bi-polar scale of at least five points (Allen and Seaman 2007; Jamieson 2004). Likert-type scales offer additional advantages to researchers, for example, through enhancing validity and reliability by measuring responses via multiple items, and also through enabling respondents to tailor their responses to some extent (i.e., within the scale limits) (de Vaus 2014). Ultimately, Likert-scales allow the researcher to better ensure uni-dimensionality, i.e., that they are measuring the same thing (e.g., level of agreement) across all items in a study (Oppenheim 2000), thus, supporting the notion Likert-scales represent a robust measurement tool, and vindicating the decision to incorporate them in this research.

Consequently, a seven-point Likert-scale ranging from numbers one to seven, with one indicating *completely disagree* and seven *completely agree* and an additional *no opinion* response option essentially representing a 'don't know' response was used in this research. The inclusion of a *no opinion* option is common practice in research surveys, and allows for the capture (or not) of the attitudes of respondents with no opinion, while facilitating their completion of the questionnaire (Oppenheim 2000). To ensure consistency and clarity for respondents, positive scoring was applied to all scales within the survey (excepting those that were reverse scored), where a score of *one* denoted *completely disagree*, and *seven*, *completely agree*. Additionally, the *no opinion* response option was numbered *zero*.

A common problem in survey research can be the phenomenon of content non-responsivity, where respondents' answers are essentially unrelated to survey item content (Nichols et al. 1989). Reverse scoring allows the researcher to check for this issue through augmenting the wording of a question and reversing the accompanying scale. Consequently, four items pertaining to the affective commitment construct in the survey used for this research were reverse scored, these were:

- Question 7_1
- Question 7_5
- Question 7_6
- Question 7_8

The incorporation of reverse scoring in the latter part of the questionnaire was in keeping with previous use of the affective commitment construct (Allen and Meyer 1990), as well as being commensurate to determining the extent of non-responsivity within the data (Bryman and Bell 2007; Nichols et al. 1989) and was, therefore, incorporated into this research.

4.6.7 Reliability and validity of questionnaire measures

Reliability and validity of survey measures significantly influences the usefulness of a research project's results (Bryman and Bell 2007; Taheri et al. 2015). Essentially, reliability represents an indication of the consistency of a questionnaire measure (Bryman and Bell 2007; Field 2009), i.e., when the same result occurs repeatedly when answered by the same individual. Reliability can be ascertained to an extent through evaluation either conducting a test-retest process (where the questionnaire is completed twice on two separate occasions by the same sample and the similarity of results compared), or via statistical testing techniques such as establishing Chronbach's alpha (Bryman and Bell 2007; Pallant 2011). In this research, given the time and resource constraints associated with a doctoral research thesis, and the scale of the survey, employing the test-retest technique was deemed impractical. Reliability for the multi-item scales in this research will be presented for both the formative and reflective measures in chapter five. To help ensure reliability was maximised as far as possible, four suggestions, presented in Table 32, were followed.

Table 32: Enhancing Reliability

Adapted from Pallant 2011; Taheri 2011; de Vaus 2014

Suggestion for Enhancing Reliability	Steps Taken in this Research
Incorporate questions that have demonstrated reliability	The multi-item measures incorporated into the questionnaire were all previously successfully used in prior studies relating to the theoretical constructs explored in this research (e.g. Allen and Meyer 1990; Jiménez et al. 2009; McGinnis et al. 2008; Michel and Rieunier 2012; Schaufeli et al. 2002, 2006; Vecina et al. 2012; Wiedmann et al. 2011a). For the background information, questions were inspired by prevailing best practice (see: Easterby-Smith et al. 2012; de Vaus 2014) and their previous applications to volunteer oriented research.
Ensure questionnaire is carefully worded	Before the main data collection process commenced, a pilot study was conducted, this informed minor amendments to enhance reliability. Further, questionnaire design best practice informed by literature (e.g., Easterby-Smith et al. 2012) was followed. This ensured the wording of the questionnaire was clear and consistent throughout.
Ensure the researcher is adequately trained	Regular consultation and appropriate supervision by academic supervisors ensured the researcher was able to conduct the research competently. Furthermore, the researcher had some prior research experience from other research projects.
Ensure coding is standardised throughout	A complete codebook was developed by the researcher along-with the questionnaire. This ensured coding remained consistent and standardised throughout the survey.

While reliability pertains to usefulness of a questionnaire measure to yield repeatable results, the validity of survey instruments refers to their ability to actually measure what they claim (Bryman and Bell 2007; Field 2009). In other words, validity is the extent of usefulness of a measure in relation to achieving measurement of the concept it was intended to measure (de Vaus 2014). There are over 35 approaches for determining validity, which has led to a crowded, and at times confusing mix of terminologies (Lynn 1986), principally: face validity, criterion related validity, construct validity, and content validity were considered (Bryman Bell 2007; de Vaus 2014).

Establishing *face validity* essentially involves the researcher seeking the opinions of experienced colleagues or supervisors to determine the extent to which the measure succeeds in measuring a particular concept (Bryman and Bell 2007). This was achieved in this research through advice from two experienced senior academic supervisors, as well as two research active academic colleagues who deemed that in their opinion, the measures were an accurate reflection of their associated concepts.

Criterion related validity can be determined by the production of results akin to those already presented in an established questionnaire (de Vaus 2014). This research ensured

criterion related validity through using established measures for: brand heritage, brand image, *communitas*, work engagement, affective commitment, and satisfaction with management.

Internal consistency reliability (construct validity) relates the findings to the expected results based upon established theory (de Vaus 2014) and is explained further for both formative and reflective measures in chapter five within discussion of the structural model.

Finally, *content validity* denotes the extent a measure captures the various facets of a theoretical concept (Lynn 1986; de Vaus 2014), for example the various dimensions of brand heritage. As all of the scales used in the research have enjoyed successful application, and satisfactory validity results, content validity was not a concern for this study.

4.6.8 Pilot study for the questionnaire

Prior to distribution, the questionnaire ultimately used in this research was subjected to an iterative process of revision, re-drafting, alteration and eventual finalisation. Focused conversations with academic researchers experienced in the process of questionnaire development aided the process, and provided comments that stimulated further revision and re-drafting until it was determined that further discussion would elicit no further improvements. Subsequently, the questionnaire was pre-tested amongst academic colleagues, senior Scout managers, and other post-graduate students, leading to some additional amendments, principally regarding wording.

Upon implementing the improvements, the questionnaire was subsequently piloted using the Qualtrics survey website amongst 18 people who were currently engaged in volunteering activity of some description. Using the online distribution method for the pilot further allowed the researcher to become more familiar with the software, and rehearse the data collection process in as realistic a manner as possible. Upon conclusion of the pilot study four areas of change were deemed necessary to enhance question wording and add clarity to the questionnaire design. Specifically, changes were made to the explanatory statements for each multi-item measure which were augmented to promote greater understanding of what respondents were being asked to do. Further, the questionnaire formatting was adjusted to more clearly delineate between the various sections. This involved alterations to spacing and a more consistent use of italics. Next, several small typo and grammatical errors were identified in questions 3.1, 4.2, 4.3, 6.2, and 7.1 and subsequently corrected. Finally, based on feedback from pilot study

respondents, the guidance for the questionnaire was altered to more accurately reflect the time required to complete it. It is likely that the researcher's familiarity with questionnaires formatted in this style, contributed to a time for completion estimation many respondents would be unlikely to achieve. Consequently, the guidance time was revised from 10 to 15 minutes. The final questionnaire is presented in Appendix 3: Phase 1 Questionnaire

4.6.9 Ethical issues

Prior to commencing the pilot study, full ethical approval was sought and received from the School of Management and Languages on behalf of Heriot-Watt University for both the pilot study, and subsequent full research project thus fulfilling the university's mandatory requirement for ethical approval. The Ethics Committee responded to the request with 'full approval', acting as a green light for its initiation. It is suggested that research should be conducted ethically around four pillars: informed consent, the avoidance of deception, maintaining privacy, and ensuring no harm to participants (Bryman and Bell 2007), steps were taken in these areas to ensure the research was completed ethically.

Through discussion with senior Scout management, it was agreed the survey link, and a cover letter (see Appendix 2) would be distributed via the Scouts email system. Furthermore, the opportunity was taken to fully inform senior management of the details, and strategy for the proposed research. The cover letter explained the purpose of the research and reassured respondents that all responses would be treated anonymously, and stored securely. Consequently, due to the potentially large number of responses, respondents consent was understood as being expressed through their participation in the research. This negated the potentially time-consuming task of logging individual consent receipts, and represented a more anonymous method of indicating consent (Dillman 2000).

The growing popularity of online survey research has stimulated additional ethical concerns around privacy (Buchanan and Hvizdak 2009; Nancarrow et al. 2001). For example, ensuring data security can be more challenging in an online environment which may be susceptible to online theft, corruption, or accidental distribution by the researcher (Buchanan and Hvizdak 2009). To minimise this risk, the Qualtrics account was password protected. Upon completion of the quantitative element of the research, the results were downloaded, saved on an encrypted external hard drive, and the Qualtrics account closed.

Additionally, confidentiality was assured to all respondents in the survey. Ensuring confidentiality can be more complex when conducting surveys online (Buchanan and Hvizdak 2009; Nancarrow et al. 2001). As such, Qualtrics was configured to ensure confidentiality, and the questionnaire designed in a way that respondents were asked for no identifying information. The only stage of the process where respondents were asked to identify themselves and provide contact details was if they opted to enter the optional prize draw. There was, deliberately, no way of connecting a prize draw member to a particular questionnaire response and the ultimate prize draw winner was contacted discreetly, and privately.

Finally, as the questionnaire was able to be completed online, at the convenience of respondents, participants were not placed at any risk as a result of this research.

4.7 Phase II: Qualitative Interviews

This section presents the methodological approach followed in the second, qualitative phase of the research to communicate the specific processes followed, but also to communicate the steps taken to deliver robust and useful results.

Sequential mixed methods research is often structured to allow first for quantitative data collection and analysis, and then subsequent qualitative data collection and analysis informed by the previous phase (Creswell 2015; Harrison and Reilly 2011). As described in Section 4.5.2, qualitative research has particular advantages, rendering it complimentary to quantitative research techniques. For example, it can allow for focused exploration of particular issues, where data richness can be particularly enlightening (Kvale 1983; 2007). Interviews represent a widely applied qualitative research technique, and essentially constitute a conversation between the researcher (interviewer) and interviewee, organised in a way conducive to generating data useful to the research (Bryman and Bell 2007; Lochrie et al. 2015). Qu and Dumay (2011) note that the usefulness of interviews as a data collection method has been challenged by some researchers, nevertheless, the worthiness of the approach is supported through the continuing publication of peer-reviewed research utilising interviews to collect data in research journals (e.g., Butler et al. 2013; Maclean and Harvey 2015; McNamee and Peterson 2015) and, indeed, arguments from some areas of the literature that qualitative interview research is potentially more valuable than alternative approaches (Yeung 1995). Consequently, the strategy that guided interviews in this research is presented. The interview sample is then explained and justified followed by the research interview

design. Next, ethical issues particular to the qualitative phase of research are considered, and the limitations of the approach used are presented.

4.7.1 Strategy for the qualitative interviews, method of completion, time, location

Semi-structured interviews (where a framework guides the interview while affording the researcher freedom to pursue pertinent avenues of conversation), were deemed appropriate for use in this study (Bryman and Bell 2007; Curran et al. 2014). The literature attests to various strengths and weaknesses of each interview approach (e.g., unstructured, structured, semi-structured) (Lochrie et al. 2015) yet, ultimately, selection of the most appropriate interview approach is contingent on the particulars of the research question, researcher's philosophical position, and available resources (Bryman and Bell 2007; Marshall and Rossman 2010). The semi-structured approach applied here is described as "...neither a free conversation, nor a highly structured questionnaire." (Kvale 1983 p. 174). Some notable weaknesses of semi-structured interviews include criticism regarding the validity and reliability of the approach, as different interviews may result in wide ranging data, compounding replication challenges already exacerbated by the time and locational variations commonly occurring in qualitative interview research. Finally, semi-structured interviews are criticised for being vulnerable to bias, as they require a degree of researcher skill, and can be easily 'led' by the researcher to skew results (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012; Jennings 2001; Kvale 1983).

Within this research, influenced by the pragmatist philosophical perspective, semi-structured interviews were deemed most appropriate. Principally, the qualitative phase of the research is concerned with establishing whether the quantitative results are broadly supported, and to enhance understanding of the role of brand heritage within the non-profit sector. Consequently, ensuring data could be gathered that would appropriately complement these aims mandated the use of a semi-structured interview approach; as a result, allowing interview data derived from various respondents to be compared effectively while in support of the exploratory nature of the research and allowing for emerging unknown insights to arise.

Kvale (1983) advances theoretical understanding of academic interviewing by presenting a series of 12 principles and issues that researchers should be cognisant of during the interview process. Consequently, face to face semi-structured interviews were conducted by the researcher in a manner conscious of Kvale's (1983) guiding principles and aspects of interview practice. The interviews themselves were thematically focused on the theoretical model (see Figure 4), and its effect within the Scouts on its volunteers,

towards contributing to understanding of its interplay, and appropriateness. Semi-structured interviews allowed the researcher to clarify responses, and ensure interview data could be comparable.

The qualitative semi-structured interviews were conducted after the principal quantitative data analysis was complete, in accordance with the sequential mixed methods design employed in this research (Teddle and Tashakkori 2009). In practice, interviews were conducted over two time periods of two weeks each, totalling one month. This was deemed appropriate as it allowed for a suitable amount of data to be collected and, indeed, was conducive to reaching data saturation whereby no new information of significance could be garnered (Francis et al. 2010).

The interviews were conducted at two sites. The first round was conducted at the Scouts largest gathering in Scotland - the biannual Jamborette located in the grounds of the Blair Atholl estate, Perthshire, in late July 2014. This gathering represented an excellent opportunity to access Scout volunteers from across the country, and the researcher found the relaxed setting of the gathering to be conducive to facilitating productive interviews. The second round of interviews was conducted in the Autumn of 2015 at a regional Scout headquarters in Scotland. Again, the familiar environment in which the Scout volunteers participated in the interviews likely contributed to establishing rapport, and relaxing the respondents. Research literature suggests interview settings should be selected to ensure interviewees are at ease (Elwood and Martin 2000), while remaining realistic with regard to ensuring access within the time and resource restrictions placed upon the research project (Lochrie et al. 2015). Furthermore, in conducting interviews researchers should be aware of micro geographies manifesting at the interview sites (Elwood and Martin 2000). The researcher identified these as far as possible, and thus avoided conducting interviews in locations that would have a negative influence. For example, at the Blair Atholl Scout Jamborette, interviews were not conducted within earshot of volunteer management, or in close proximity to the young Scouts themselves. Similarly, at the regional Scout headquarters, interviews were conducted in a private side-room, thus ensuring privacy of conversation as well as a familiar and conveniently accessible environment for the interviewee.

4.7.2 Sample

Commensurate with the nature of the PhD process, a non-probability sample was deemed appropriate whereby the likelihood of selection for the sample is unknown (see section 4.6.3). While non-probability sampling techniques can detract from the generalisability

of a study to wider populations (Creswell 2009; Taheri et al. 2015), it represented the most appropriate method in this study. Ideally, a large scale series of qualitative interviews would have been conducted across Scotland, with volunteers from numerous voluntary organisations; however, given the financial and time constraints on this study such an approach was not feasible, indeed large scale qualitative data collection is noted to be particularly time consuming (Saunders et al. 2007). Nevertheless, as the aim of this sequential second phase of the research project was to elicit deeper understanding of the newly developed theoretical model a non-probability sample was deemed suitable.

To help ensure a range of respondents conducive to establishing the role of brand heritage in voluntary organisations, a purposeful sampling approach was used (Bryman and Bell 2007; Taheri et al. 2014b). This represents the same sampling approach deployed in conducting the quantitative survey and is explained previously in section 4.6.2. The results of the quantitative research suggested the Scouts in Scotland did not possess high levels of diversity with regard to religious beliefs; however, the results did demonstrate the organisation possesses a broad range of volunteers of different ages; a factor deemed of particular relevance when exploring brand heritage. Accordingly, the researcher attempted to capture a broad age range of volunteers who volunteered with the Scouts in the sample.

As previously mentioned, data saturation was achieved and monitored through an iterative process of continual consideration and comparison of interviewee responses until it was clear no new information of note would be uncovered (Bryman 2008). Information regarding the resultant sample of 15 respondents, and the interviews are shown in Table 33 below. On average, the interviews lasted around 25 minutes. In keeping with established research convention, and Heriot-Watt University's ethical guidelines, respondents were categorised numerically, with only their sex, age bracket, location of the interview and their volunteer status revealed, thus safeguarding their anonymity.

Table 33: Interviewee Characteristics

Number	Sex	Age Bracket	Interview Location	Volunteer Status
1	M	18-25	Blair Atholl Jamborette	Active Scouts Volunteer
2	M	26-35	Blair Atholl Jamborette	Active Scouts Volunteer
3	M	26-35	Blair Atholl Jamborette	Active Scouts Volunteer
4	M	26-35	Blair Atholl Jamborette	Active Scouts Volunteer
5	F	56-64	Blair Atholl Jamborette	Active Scouts Volunteer
6	F	65+	Blair Atholl Jamborette	Active Scouts Volunteer
7	F	26-35	Blair Atholl Jamborette	Active Scouts Volunteer
8	F	46-55	Blair Atholl Jamborette	Active Scouts Volunteer
9	M	46-55	Blair Atholl Jamborette	Active Scouts Volunteer
10	M	46-55	Regional Scout headquarters	Active Scouts Volunteer
11	F	26-35	Regional Scout headquarters	Active Scouts Volunteer
12	F	18-25	Regional Scout headquarters	Active Scouts Volunteer
13	M	18-25	Regional Scout headquarters	Active Scouts Volunteer
14	M	18-25	Regional Scout headquarters	Active Scouts Volunteer
15	M	18-25	Regional Scout headquarters	Active Scouts Volunteer

As Table 33 shows, respondents were both male and female, and represented all age bracket ranges. Nine interviews took place at the Blair Atholl Jamborette, while a further six were held at a regional Scout headquarters. The pilot study stage is now explained.

4.7.3 Pilot study

The general merits for conducting a pilot study were explained in section 4.6.8. Prior to commencing the qualitative interviews, a pilot study was conducted which allowed the researcher to ensure the interview design was valid, and its aims achievable (Curran et al. 2014). As Flick (2009) notes, the nomenclature used within academic research interviews should be clear and unambiguous; therefore, the qualitative pilot study consisted of four interviews split evenly between academic colleagues and contacts working within a non-academic setting, thus allowing the researcher to ensure the language used in the interviews was accessible to all. The respondents had no prior knowledge of the study to ensure the pilot was as useful as possible (Bryman 2008). Deliberately, the researcher kept the pilot study interviews broad in scope to gauge likely understanding and comprehension of the phenomenon of brand heritage and the worth of the newly developed model developed in the quantitative phase of the research (see Figure 4) (Flick 2009; King and Horrocks 2010). Additionally, it was deemed useful, particularly at the pilot stage to elicit as much interaction as possible between the researcher and respondents to avoid dominating or steering proceedings too strongly. The early stages of the pilot interviews were characterised by statements from the researcher such as “are you aware of brand heritage”, “do you think brand heritage manifests in your organisation?”, “When you think of brand heritage in your organisation, how does it make you feel?”, these statements acted as useful icebreakers and ensured interviewees gained an

understanding of the concept of brand heritage in case one was lacking. The same strategy was used for the other constructs which comprised the model in Figure 4. Consequently, this approach successfully stimulated the elicitation of interviewee responses.

The pilot stage interviews were successful in so far as interviewees were keen to share their understanding and experiences of brand heritage, undoubtedly the interviewees found the topic engaging, and there was general support for the quantitatively tested model. Subsequently, the researcher was able to use the pilot study to help formulate the focus, and questions of the subsequent qualitative interviews, ensuring they were appropriately refined and accessible, as well as conducive to meeting the aims of the broader study. The interview design is now explained.

4.7.4 Interview design

In keeping with the sequential mixed methods explanatory design employed in this research, the interview design approach was determined, to some extent, by the quantitative findings (Creswell 2009; Harrison and Reilly 2011; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009). In other words, as the role of the qualitative phase of the research was to further determine the usefulness of the quantitatively validated model (Figure 11) (Grace and O'Cass 2003; Steenkamp and Geyskens 2006), and ascertain deeper, richer understanding of its operation, the empirically validated theoretical model and its established relationships comprised the template used within a template analysis framework. Utilising such an analysis approach formalises similarly applied procedures (see Grace and O'Cass 2003; McMullan and Gilmore 2008; Steenkamp and Geyskens 2006) within the structure afforded by a template analysis, it also allows the researcher to remain open to any emergent findings organically manifesting throughout the interviews. The template analysis approach used within this research is now explained and justified.

4.7.5 Template analysis

Within qualitative research, various approaches to analysis and interpretation of data have developed (Braun and Clarke 2006; Easterby-Smith et al. 2012). Consideration of the most appropriate analysis approach is important prior to the commencement of data collection and assessment; furthermore, these approaches can guide the data reduction strategy used and allow the researcher to organise and refine large amounts of qualitative data into a form conducive to effective empirical use (Sang and Sitko 2015).

Qualitative analysis approaches include thematic and discourse analysis, grounded theory, and the template analysis procedure used in this research (Bryman and Bell 2007; Sang and Sitko 2015). These approaches are briefly described in Table 34 below.

Table 34: Qualitative Data Analysis Approaches

Approach	Description	Sources
Grounded Theory	Inductive in nature, involves a constant degree of iteration between analysis and collection of data, thus it can be time consuming and requires a high degree of competency of the researcher. The resultant categories emerging from the data constitute developing theory.	Creswell 2009; Easterby-Smith et al. 2012; Sang and Sitko 2015; Strauss and Corbin 1994; Willig 2013
Thematic Analysis	Is not guided by the literature, but involves identifying themes arising in the data, methodically. Themes are not derived from literature, but solely from the empirical data. The resultant reported themes constitute the identified contribution of the research.	Braun and Clarke 2006; Sang and Sitko 2015; Willig 2013
Discourse Analysis	Focused upon analysing the role of linguistic patterns within a data set. For example, assessing sentence structure and speaker order in relation to power establishment. Demands a particular approach be taken to interpretation and transcription of data.	Easterby-Smith et al. 2012; Fairclough 2010; Sang and Sitko 2015; Willig 2013
Template Analysis	Represents an approach where codes can be established (as a template) ‘a priori’ based upon the literature, aiding subsequent analysis and categorisation. Furthermore, additional ‘posteriori’ themes, emerging from the empirical data analysis can feedback into the template to develop new theory.	Butler et al. 2013; King 2004, King 2012; Sang and Sitko 2015

Consequently, Table 34 shows template analysis was the most appropriate analysis approach for this research as it allowed for the theoretical model developed presented in Figure 4 (developed from the literature) to be explored further, while remaining open to newly emerging themes in the data. In the initial stage of template analysis, the researcher commences a coding process whereby interview data is categorised, organised, and arranged into a usable and manageable form in which empirical evidence for research questions can be determined (King 2004; Sang and Sitko 2015). Integral to this process of analysis, is the guiding ‘template’. Essentially, the template is derived from the extant literature and mandates the subsequent categorisation of the collected empirical data (Butler et al. 2013). In other words, the template allows the researcher to organise collected data, facilitate data collection and analysis, and ultimately allow for insights into particular research areas (Sang and Sitko 2015).

Template analysis possesses a particular strength in that it allows the researcher to identify both ‘a priori’ and ‘a posteriori’ themes (Crabtree and Miller 1999; Sang and Sitko 2015). ‘A priori’ themes denote those identified before the empirical data is analysed, are derived from preceding relevant literature, and constitute the template itself.

Identification of their presence or absence within empirical data can contribute to researcher understanding of the relevance of their themes, perhaps stimulating conclusions regarding their theoretical relevance in particular contexts (King 2004). Additionally, ‘a posteriori’ themes are those which emerge organically within the collected data having previously not been identified within the relevant literature (Butler et al. 2013; King 2004). Within template analysis, the researcher can modify and augment the template to include emergent themes identified throughout the interpretation process (Eisenhardt 1989; King 2004). Thus, identifying emergent themes allows the researcher to make a substantive contribution to the literature and can constitute avenues of further research (Butler et al. 2013).

Aiding the research, and in keeping with the template analysis approach used, the formulation of a coding scheme was required. The codes were derived from the literature prior to the empirical stages of the research and, thus, echoed the theoretical model empirically tested in phase 1 of this research (see Figure 4). Noted challenges associated with establishing an appropriate number of codes have been identified, emphasising that too many codes can spread the focus of the interview too thinly, and lead to weaker, non-conclusive information being unearthed (King 2004). Conversely, too few codes can contribute to the collection of highly focused, opaque data that is difficult to explore in a meaningful way (King 2004). Consequently, the researcher endeavoured to carefully consider such issues, and developed a template deemed to be of appropriate size (Table 35).

Table 35: Table of 'a priori themes'

Code	Description	Supporting Literature
Brand Heritage	Brand heritage comprises an organisation's history, reputation, recognisability, staying power, and belief in the importance of its story. Brand heritage can lend credibility and gravitas to the purported values of an organisation.	Hakala et al. 2011; Urde et al. 2007; Wiedmann et al. 2011a; Wuestefeld et al. 2012
Communitas	Communitas relates to a concentrated, highly intense feeling of social bonding, freed from typical societal constraints such as education, job status, and social class. Communitas represents a spirit of strong camaraderie.	Belk et al. 1989; Celsi et al. 1993; Di Giovine 2011; McGinnis et al. 2012; Sharpe 2005, Turner 1964
Brand Image	Brand image consists of an outwardly projected and consciously manufactured image, comprising a mix of the following lower-order components: usefulness, efficiency, affect and dynamism.	Bennett and Gabriel 2003, Michel and Rieunier 2012, Mort et al. 2007
Volunteer Work Engagement	Understood as a positive, internal mental state toward undertaking tasks, work engagement consists of vigour (an energetic approach to work), absorption (concerned with concentration and well-being) and, finally, dedication (pertaining to notions of pride and endurance).	Bakker et al. 2008; Schaufeli et al. 2002; Vecina et al. 2012
Affective Commitment	Characterised by volunteers possessing strong, positive desires to remain a part of an organisation, affective commitment suggests strong emotional connections. Volunteers are likely to identify with the culture, aims, and goals of the organisation strongly on a personal level.	Allen and Meyer 1990; Cunningham 2001; Meyer et al. 2002; Vecina et al. 2013; Vecina et al. 2012
Satisfaction with Management	The level of satisfaction held by volunteers towards their management acts as an outcome variable, and can indicate systemic problems in the management approaches used, as well as the likelihood volunteers will leave an organisation.	Chacón 2007; Vecina et al. 2012; Vecina et al. 2009; Wilson 2012

In practice, the template derived from the literature informed the interview process. Thus, the researcher ensured that the interviews were focused upon the pertinent issues, and remained relevant to the phenomenon under study through the use of an interview guide (see appendix 4). Consequently, the researcher began the analysis process by first immersing himself in the data, and closely reading the interview transcripts multiple times, comprehending and honing understanding of their meanings. Through using an interview guide underpinned by literature, the collected data already had an inherent degree of structure and organisation, which further enabled the subsequent fragmentation process of the empirical data into the necessary categorical codes. This was completed by the researcher examining carefully each interview transcript and assigning the relevant codes to the appropriate areas of text. Echoing good practice (King 2004), and remaining faithful to the guiding theoretical model (Figure 4) a hierarchical coding structure was employed. The hierarchical structure manifests similarly to the higher/lower order conceptualisations of constructs within the structural model, where higher order thematic

codes comprise a composite of several sub-dimensions. Consequently, as both brand image, and work engagement were conceptualised as higher-order, their sub-themes were also represented in the template analysis to allow for nuanced, potentially useful data to emerge (King 2004).

As previously discussed, an inherent advantage of template analysis is the ability for additional, previously unidentified themes to emerge, thus allowing both deductive and inductively derived themes to be identified (King 2004). In particular, this strength complements the quantitative research approach used in phase 1, where ten hypotheses were tested and validated in a primarily deductive manner (See section: 4.4). This aided the researcher in identifying elements of the interview transcripts that had not been previously noted in the literature, principally, the newly identified theme of 'heritage custodianship' emerged, vindicating the use of the flexible template analysis approach and contributing to the researcher's overall ability to answer the research questions. The process of identifying the additional theme was carefully considered, and evidence supporting it clearly documented by the researcher. Furthermore, the researcher carefully ensured the additional theme was distinct from others, through assessment of any areas of overlap with previously identified themes, indeed during the whole analysis process the researcher carefully monitored the independence or otherwise of identifiable themes, and adjusted their categorisation appropriately.

Toward completing a template analysis researchers can now utilise a range of computer software. Software such as NVivo and CAQDAS (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012) is becoming increasingly popular and acceptable in published qualitative research. Consequently, the researcher assessed the strengths and weaknesses of such software, before making an informed decision to use a non-software based, manual approach. Inherent strengths of using software include it affording the researcher greater convenience by being able to sift through large amounts of text more easily using in-built search functions (Bryman and Bell 2007; King 2004). Furthermore, using software arguably facilitates increased accuracy and speed of analysis, derived in part through the software being unaffected by personal emotional investment that can otherwise influence a researcher's findings, but also from its functionality being conducive to more systematic assessment and categorisation (Bryman and Bell 2007; Easterby-Smith et al. 2012; King 2004). On the other hand, the software approach has been variously criticised. For example, software can reduce the interactive nature of the relationship between the researcher and their data, resulting in a more clinical analysis process and potential

detachment from the study (Bryman and Bell 2007; Gill and Johnson 2010). Furthermore, successful software-based research requires the researcher to possess a high level of competence in its use (Creswell 2009; Easterby-Smith et al. 2012). Given the time and budgetary constraints associated with the PhD process, the time and resources required to achieve this were not available. Essentially, given the qualitative analysis pertained to a smaller sample in a second phase of the overall research project, the researcher judged the use of specialised software would have little beneficial effect on the analysis and, indeed, could be potentially detrimental as the time and resources required for its use would reduce the overall time available for analysis. Consequently, the researcher analysed and coded the text manually.

4.7.6 Validity and reliability of the qualitative stage

To conclude a robust qualitative data analysis it is necessary to ensure the validity (measuring what the research purports to measure) and reliability (measuring it effectively and accurately) of this phase of the research (Miles and Huberman 1994; Peräkylä 2011, Merriam 1998). Assessment of validity and reliability within qualitative studies differs significantly from the approaches previously explained and applied in the quantitative phase (Shenton 2004) (see section 4.6.7). Indeed, some debate continues regarding the most effective ways to ascertain these measures of value, in particular regarding whether they should be considered prescriptively upon completion of analysis, or actively, throughout the data collection and analysis process, to stimulate continual iterative improvement (Morse et al. 2002). Furthermore, the use of conflicting terminologies has served to complicate understanding of these terms and fragment understanding of the methods of its assessment (Shenton 2004).

Traditionalist qualitative researchers have been reluctant to apply terms they associate with quantitative research, instead developing ideas of dependability, credibility, transferability and confirmability as indicators of a qualitative study's integrity and usefulness (Bryman and Bell 2015; Guba and Lincoln 1998; Lincoln and Guba 1985). Particularly within qualitative research, issues of validity and reliability are often overlooked (Crisp and Cruz 2009), yet require attention if useful conclusions are to be derived from a research project (Bryman and Bell 2015). When possible, this research followed an iterative, continual assessment approach for validity and reliability as this helped ensure the generation of useful analysis and results (Morse and Niehaus 2009). The procedures followed in this research to maintain appropriate validity and reliability within the data set follow best practice examples which include suggesting researchers

triangulate sources, hold debrief sessions, maintain honesty and conduct member checking (Bryman and Bell 2015; Gillham 2001; Morse et al. 2002; Yin 2009). Consequently, the steps taken to ensure the validity and reliability of the qualitative phase of this research are now described.

Triangulation of sources

Triangulation approaches manifest in different ways and can contribute to enhancing confidence in qualitative research findings (Flick 2004; Shenton 2004). Through conducting interviews at two separate locations in two sets, the researcher increased confidence in the study through a triangulation of data approach (Flick 2004). This triangulation method allowed for any locational influences affecting interviewee responses to be identified, and managed. Additional triangulation approaches include various data collectors being used to mitigate the potential for research bias (Shenton 2004). While this would have added further confidence to the study's findings, this was beyond the scope and resources available for the PhD.

Debrief sessions

The research process was characterised by regular communication and dialogue between the researcher and his PhD supervision team. These debrief sessions afforded the researcher the opportunity to reflect on the qualitative data gathering process and enhance it through integrating advice and guidance derived from experienced academic supervisors back into the research process (Shenton 2004; Spall 1998). For example, the researcher noted upon completion of the first interview that the respondent had seemed slightly nervous during the opening sections of the interview, after discussion with supervisors, it was suggested the researcher work harder at 'breaking the ice' at the onset of the interview. The researcher observed that subsequent interviewees appeared to relax into the interviews much more quickly from thereon.

Maintaining honesty

Important to generating useful and credible qualitative results is the need to, as far as possible, ensure respondents are honest during interviews (Shenton 2004). Two techniques were applied in this research to help maximise honesty of responses. First, all respondents were made fully aware that their participation and contributions to the research project would be treated entirely anonymously, thus respondents could feel comfortable giving accurate and correct statements to the researcher. Furthermore, respondents' right to terminate the interview at any time was reiterated to them prior to the interview commencing. This helped ensure respondents maintained an element of

control within the process, and acted as a further safeguard to interviewees' losing interest in the process.

Member checking

Member checking represents an additional approach to ensuring validity and reliability during the research process (Bryman and Bell 2015). Member checking involves the researcher submitting items derived through the data collection process such as interview transcripts, to the interviewee enabling their opinions on the accuracy and validity of the account (Bryman and Bell 2015; Stake 1995). In particular, member checking can be useful where the phenomenon of investigation is of a technical or complex nature. Of course, the researcher must ensure confidentiality is maintained in this process, and only submit transcripts to the appropriate participants. Member checking was used in this research; interview transcripts were sent to participants for comment. This helped the researcher ensure the intended views of respondents had been accurately understood by the researcher.

Ethical issues

A similarly considerate approach to the ethical procedures explained in section 4.6.9 was adopted for the qualitative pilot, and subsequent full interview phase of the study. Consequently, ethical approval was granted in full by the School of Management and Languages at Heriot-Watt University for the pilot study, and subsequent full interview stage. Further to the mandatory requirements of the University, the ethical considerations of this research were guided by the four pillars identified by (Bryman and Bell 2007; 2015) as informed consent, avoiding deception, ensuring privacy of interviewees is maintained, and safeguarding participants from harm in relation to the research. Steps taken in this research included gaining respondents' full permission to participate in advance of the interview through ensuring respondents were involving themselves entirely of their own volition, armed with appropriate information to base their decision of participation, and fully comprehended the implications of their participation (Flick 2009). Deception was avoided through being open and honest with participants, articulating the aims of the research clearly, and remaining true to the ethical principles governing the research throughout the process. Furthermore, at the opening meeting of volunteers at the Blair Atholl Jamborette, the researcher was introduced, with both his role and the entirely voluntary nature of participation in the research interviews made clear. Finally, protecting interviewees' privacy was achieved through conducting interviews privately, and using numerical labels in transcription, analysis and presentation

to the extent that readers of the resultant research are unable to determine the identity of its participants (Bryman and Bell 2007; Flick 2009; King and Horrocks 2010).

Access to Scout volunteers, and Scout controlled sites in which interviews took place was negotiated and subsequently granted by the senior management of Scout Scotland, who were particularly helpful in facilitating the research, yet in no way sought to compromise its impartiality or interfere with its completion.

Reflexivity is noted as an important component of ethical research (Bryman and Bell 2007). Essentially, while conducting interviews researchers often become personally invested in the study to some extent, thus influencing the research process as well as its resultant conclusions. To mitigate this risk, researchers should continually reflect on the nature of their involvement and its impact upon the study, monitoring their attitudes towards the research project, identifying pre-conceived notions pertinent to the research before it is undertaken and reflecting on these throughout the process, while also being self-critical of their own competence during the process (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012).

Relating to this research, the researcher adopted a reflective stance throughout. Prior to commencing the study, the researcher identified himself as having had no prior affiliation with the Scouts, although a 12--year period of youth membership of the Boys Brigade (a popular uniformed youth organisation which enjoys a friendly rivalry towards the Scouts) was identified as potentially instilling negative pre-conceived perceptions. Nevertheless, the researcher – after familiarising himself with the particular vernacular of the Scouts – was able to mitigate this risk through regular reflection. The reflective, self-critical stance adopted in this research further helped the researcher evaluate his performance in interviews, especially at the pilot stage it was noted that the researcher needed to better articulate particular elements of the language used to clarify meaning. This process was continued throughout the actual qualitative interview phase of the research and, as such, the researcher's performance followed a trajectory of continual improvement and incremental refinement.

4.7.7 Methodological limitations for phase I and phase II

As with any applied research methodology, the quantitative element (phase I) and the qualitative element (phase II) of this research were not without limitations. These are discussed with respect to the appropriate phase of the research below.

Methodological limitations of phase I

To participate in the study, respondents required internet access, and basic IT skills. It is possible these prerequisites to participation negatively affected the response rate.

Furthermore, by maintaining anonymity amongst respondents, some non-respondents, perhaps, felt less inclined to respond. Nevertheless, an acceptable number of usable responses were collected.

Furthermore, quantitative research has been criticised for lacking the ability to sensitively, and forensically explain phenomena in context (Creswell 2009; Waitzkin 1993). Indeed, it can be argued that quantitative research can fail to capture a respondent's true feelings and attitudes, as responses are restricted to a set rating to a deliberately concise question, therefore eliciting a less genuine response than could be achieved through a qualitative research method such as interviews (Bryman and Bell 2007). Similarly, quantitative research, despite being the most dominant research approach used in published non-profit literature, it has been criticised for its reliance on measurement instruments that rely upon a necessary level of knowledge and understanding on the part of the respondent. As there is little scope for explanation (especially in online administered surveys), such instruments can potentially be misunderstood by respondents (Bryman and Bell 2007).

Additionally, the survey was only distributed amongst one organisation, and over one time period, thus it was cross-sectional in nature, and open to self-selection bias (Podsakoff et al. 2003). As a consequence, the results presented in chapter 5 should not be viewed as absolute proof of causal relationships between the constructs but, instead, as advancing current theoretical understanding of the interplay between brand heritage, communitas, brand image, work engagement, affective commitment, and satisfaction with management specifically within the Scouts, but alluding to similar relationships in other volunteer settings. To enhance the study's generalisability, a longitudinal design conducted amongst multiple organisations could have led to the generation of more robust, definitive results. Furthermore, the precise wording of the scales used in this research was operationalised to enhance clarity of meaning for respondents. Although this process was carefully and iteratively conducted in close consultation with experienced academic researchers, and the scales demonstrated high reliability and validity, they have only been successfully employed in this one study.

Methodological limitations of phase II

The qualitative element of this research possessed two main limitations. Primarily, the qualitative element of the study was only conducted amongst one organisation, over two time periods. Conducting interviews over an increased number of periods, in multiple organisations could have enhanced the usefulness of its findings. Furthermore, had time

and resource constraints allowed, triangulation could have helped mitigate the risk of researcher influence and bias further (Shenton 2004). Also affected by time and resources, the research sample could have been larger, however, as the interviews were conducted until research saturation was achieved the benefits of a larger sample size are debateable (Bryman and Bell 2015; Guest et al. 2006). Consequently, the results presented in the next section of this research represent an avenue advancing understanding of the manifestation of relationships between brand heritage, *communitas*, brand image, work engagement, affective commitment, and satisfaction with management amongst volunteers. Thus, the results further inform our understanding of the theoretical model presented in section 3.14 and the empirical results presented in section 5.6.4.

Chapter 5 Quantitative Phase 1: Results derived from the survey

5.1 Introduction

This section of the thesis represents the analysis and results of the quantitative phase of the explanatory sequential research design employed. The analysis presented aims to meet the research aim and objectives reiterated below along with the research hypotheses formed from the literature to meet them. Further, it presents the findings of the quantitative phase of the research and, to aid clarity, is structured in three parts: first, the preliminary and descriptive analysis from the survey obtained is discussed through exploration of the data. Second, analysis of the conceptual model is described and the results presented. Finally, the higher order components of the model are explained and the results of analysis are offered.

Aim: The aim of this research is to develop a new theoretical model of the volunteering process to enhance volunteer management practice.

Specifically, it investigates the influence of brand heritage on *communitas*, brand image, work engagement, affective commitment and satisfaction in relation to volunteer management.

Towards fulfilling the research aim, the following five objectives were formulated:

1. Underpinned by the volunteer process model, identify antecedents, experiences, and consequences of volunteering.
2. To explore how antecedents of volunteering contribute to volunteer experiences.
3. To expand understanding of how antecedents of volunteering impact on the consequences of volunteering.
4. To develop understanding of the dynamics of volunteer experiences.
5. To evaluate the influence of volunteer experiences upon the consequences of volunteering.

Aiding the quantitative phase of the research, 10 hypotheses were formulated from the literature (see section: 3.14) to guide the analysis, these are presented below:

H1: Brand heritage has a positive relationship with *communitas*

H2: Brand heritage has a positive relationship with volunteer work engagement

H3: Brand heritage has a positive relationship with affective commitment

H4: Brand Heritage has a positive relationship with satisfaction with management

H5: Brand image has a positive relationship with volunteer work engagement

H6: *Communitas* has a positive relationship with brand image

H7: *Communitas* has a positive relationship with affective commitment

H8: *Communitas* has a positive relationship with satisfaction with management

H9: Volunteer work engagement has a positive relationship with satisfaction with management

H10: Volunteer work engagement has a positive relationship with affective commitment

The results of the quantitative analysis are now presented.

5.2 Descriptive Data Analysis/Characteristics of study sample

The preliminary and descriptive analysis of the data obtained during the quantitative phase of this mixed methods explanatory sequential study are now presented. As previous studies note, demographic characteristics (e.g., gender, age, religion, education) can influence volunteering behaviour (Musick and Wilson 2008). Consequently, the demographic information from the 1,248 respondents in this study was analysed through descriptive tests such as cross-tabulations, and frequencies to gain an overview of the data.

5.2.1 Age

Respondents to the survey came from a range of age brackets, but the most common age of respondents was between 46-55 years (32.3%), closely followed by 36-45 years (22.18%). There were almost as many 18-25 year old respondents as over 65 year olds. Collecting data pertaining to Scout volunteer age characteristics is useful for two reasons. First, it allows the researcher to ensure a representative spread of respondents participated and, secondly, such data can contribute to discussion regarding the concern that brand heritage holds more appeal over specific age categories (Wiedmann. et al. 2011a).

Table 36: Respondents' Age

Age Category		Frequency	Percent
Valid	18-25	112	9.0
	26-35	161	12.9
	36-45	284	22.8
	46-55	403	32.3
	56-64	175	14.0
	65+	113	9.1
	Total	1248	100.0

Table 36 shows that the most common age group within the sample is 46-55 years, and indeed, that almost 80% of Scout volunteers who responded are over the age of 36. Broadly speaking, these results echo wider volunteering literature which suggests people are more likely to volunteer as they get older and reach an age where their children become more independent (Musick and Wilson 2008).

5.2.2 Gender

Table 37 shows that more of the respondents in this research were male (57.2%) with fewer females responding to the survey (38.7%). A smaller number (0.2%) categorised themselves as transgender, and 3.8% as other. The relationship between gender and volunteering is complex and research results are often contradictory (Einolf 2011). The higher number of male volunteers shown in the data echoes some trends in broader volunteering research literature which suggests that despite having higher levels of altruistic attitudes (Einolf 2011), women are less likely to volunteer than men (Oswald 2000; Wymer Jr and Samu 2002). Nevertheless, within the context of the Scouts, which has traditionally had more male than female members, this was to be expected. Furthermore, men are more likely than women to engage with causes that hold personal interest to them, thus, the Scouts traditionally male-dominated cohort has, perhaps, resulted in a high number of male Scout volunteers continuing their involvement with the organisation (Mills 2011).

Table 37: Gender of Respondents

Gender Category		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Male	714	57.2
	Female	483	38.7
	Transgender	3	.2
	Other	48	3.8
	Total	1248	100.0

5.2.3 Education

Most respondents for the survey were educated to Ordinary Degree/Graduate Certificate level or above (58.4%), almost 30% have Scottish Higher/A-Level/College Diploma level qualifications and only a very small number of respondents had no educational qualification (0.8%). Information regarding education level characteristics is pertinent to volunteering research as previous studies suggest that more highly educated people are more likely to undertake voluntary activity (Musick and Wilson 200; Wilson 2000).

Table 38: Educational Level of Respondents

Education Level		Frequency	Percent
Valid	GCSE/Standard Grade/ O Levels/ School Leaving Certificate	144	11.5
	Scottish Higher/A- Levels/ College Diploma	364	29.2
	Ordinary Degree/Graduate Certificate	179	14.3
	Honours Degree/Graduate Diploma	381	30.5
	Master Degree	135	10.8
	Doctorate	35	2.8
	None	10	.8
	Total	1248	100.0

As Table 38 illustrates, the results of this study echo prior understanding of the positive correlation between volunteering and education level, where well-educated individuals are more likely to volunteer than individuals with very low level, or no education.

5.2.4 Religion

Information regarding respondents' religious characteristics can be useful in establishing an overview of the diversity of the Scouts as an organisation and perhaps offer opportunities for deeper analysis within religious categories pertaining to other variables. The data presented in Table 39 shows a vast majority of respondents classified themselves as Christian (67.3%). This is fairly unsurprising given that, historically, the Scouts were rooted on religious foundations (Mills 2011) (evident in the Scouts promise). A smaller number of respondents classified themselves as Atheist (9.5%), Only a small number of respondents were from minority religious groups (e.g., Muslim, Hindu, Jewish) which, again, is perhaps related to the Scouts historically Christian orientation, but reflective also of the broader characteristics of the population in Scotland where census results suggest approximately 65% of people describe themselves as Christian (Scottish Government 2001).

Table 39: Religious Identifications

Category		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Christian	840	67.3
	Muslim	5	.4
	Hindu	4	.3
	Jewish	37	3.0
	Atheist	118	9.5
	Agnostic	88	7.1
	Other	56	4.5
	Rather not say	100	8.0
	Total	1248	100.0

5.3 Exploring the data

5.3.1 Selecting appropriate hypothesis testing techniques

The following section considers the fundamentals of data and the assumptions that data should meet for parametric statistics tests towards establishing the nature of the data

collected in this research. Consequently, assumptions of normal distribution, homogeneity of variance, independence of measure, and interval data are now discussed.

5.3.2 *Choosing appropriate statistical techniques: Parametric and non-parametric*

Some statistical techniques require fulfilment of certain pre-requisites to be effective and yield useful results (Field 2009; Pallant 2011). For example, Pearson Correlations require the data be normally distributed (i.e., parametric); Mann-Whitney require that it is not normally distributed (i.e., non-parametric); while, statistical equation modelling using PLS can be conducted effectively with either parametric or non-parametric data (Field 2009). Consequently, it is important to determine the nature of the data, and ascertain whether it is normally distributed (i.e., a bell shaped curve), or non-normally distributed.

Six methods are commonly used towards determining normal distribution of a sample. While visual inspection of histograms conveying the distribution of the data within SPSS can be useful, they can be misinterpreted, are not quantifiable, and are subjective in nature (Field 2009; Pallant 2011). Nevertheless, a visual inspection of histograms for all scales was conducted, serving as an initial layer of exploration. The results intimated the data was not normally distributed, demanding further quantifiable exploration analysis by determining the kurtosis and skewness of the data, its associated z-scores, and applying the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) tests of normal distribution.

Kurtosis and skewness can help describe the spread of the data (DeCarlo 1997; Field 2009). Kurtosis values describe the pointedness of the distribution which can either be peaked, or flat, while skewness values represent the extent to which the responses are distributed symmetrically or asymmetrically. Consequently, normally distributed data would be indicated by kurtosis and skewness valuations of zero (Field 2009; Pallant 2011). Similarly, positive kurtosis statistics suggest increased pointedness in distribution, while negative values suggest a flatter distribution. Negative skewness statistics suggest scores are grouped together on the right side of the distribution (i.e., scores are, on average, more positive than normal), while positively scoring skewness values indicate that scores are gathered on the left of the distribution (i.e., scores are, on average, more negative than normal) (DeCarlo 1997). The kurtosis and skewness results are shown in Appendices 11-17 for all scales.

In this study, the kurtosis statistics intimated that the data collected was distributed non-normally. This was suggested by variation and inconsistency regarding the kurtosis statistics, meaning there was a mixture of leptokurtic and platykurtic distributions. Leptokurtic distributions result from positive kurtosis, with heavy-tailed distribution,

while platykurtic distribution results from negative kurtosis and denotes a flatter distribution (Field 2009). For example, all items for Q1 and Q2 displayed positive scores for kurtosis, suggesting a pointed, leptokurtic, focused distribution (Field 2009). Q3_8 was the only scale in the brand image construct to hold a negative kurtosis score; similarly, negative scores were found for Q5_2,3,4,5, all of Q6 excepting Q6_6, and all of Q_7. The negative kurtosis score suggested a flatter, platykurtic distribution of results. Specifically, for the brand heritage and *communitas* scales, all items had a leptokurtic distribution, while for brand image only one item (Q3_8) had a minor platykurtic distribution. The engagement scale items were half leptokurtic, and half platykurtic in distribution, while all of the satisfaction scale items had a platykurtic distribution. Finally, affective commitment scale items had two platykurtik items, with the remaining possessing a leptokurtic distribution. Consequently, a majority of the items' scores were leptokurtic in distribution for brand heritage, *communitas*, and brand image, meaning scores were generally concentrated around the mean, indicating a degree of consensus amongst Scout volunteers towards these questions (Field 2009). On the other hand, the work engagement, satisfaction, and commitment scales tended towards platykurtic distributions, suggesting variation between scores of respondents (Pallant 2011).

The skewness statistic in this study was negative for all scale items excluding the reverse scored items (Q 7_1, 5, 6, and 8) with the exception of Q7_5, which had a skewness statistic of -0.89. Overall, these results demonstrate an increased frequency of high value respondent scores, and vindicate the rationale for incorporating reverse scored items towards the end of the survey predicated on evidence the respondents continued to complete the questionnaires accurately. The generally negative skew in distribution could perhaps be explained through literature on volunteer turnover which suggests when certain factors such as inconvenience negatively affect volunteers, the likelihood of them leaving a volunteer role consequently increases (Miller et al. 1990; Wilson 2000), this positivity could be manifesting in volunteer survey responses. Overall, the inconsistency regarding kurtosis within the data, as well as the seemingly consistent indications of skewness suggests the data are not normally distributed.

To further explore the assumption of normality in this study, it is useful to establish the likelihood of kurtosis and skewness occurring by establishing the z-scores using Field's (2009) formula. Calculating z-scores results in two distinct benefits; first it offers the ability to determine the likelihood of skewness or kurtosis occurring and, secondly, it is conducive to wider comparison with other samples (Field 2009). Calculated at a

confidence level of 95% ($\alpha = .05$), the result of the equation questions the null hypothesis (i.e., of normal distribution) when in excess of ± 1.96 , and at the more sensitive 99% confidence interval ($\alpha = .01$) when in excess of ± 2.58 (Field 2009, Hair et al. 2010). Given the large sample size of the study, the 99% confidence interval was deemed more likely to produce a useful result, and was used to explore skewness and kurtosis in this test only. The z-scores for skewness were within the 2.58 boundary for all scale items and for all constructs while z-score values for kurtosis were found to frequently reside outwith the ± 2.58 cut-off, specifically, questions 1_5, 1_10, 1_11, 1_12, 1_15, 3_2, 3_9, and 4_4.

Having established kurtosis and skewness within the data, researchers can opt to apply a mathematical treatment (also known as a transformation) to all values within a sample, for example squaring. This researcher opted not to apply such a treatment, principally due to the variation between positive and negative skewness and kurtosis meaning the squaring approach could not be consistent for all items. Furthermore, the literature questions the overall effectiveness of the transformation approach (Corder and Foreman 2009). Field (2009) cautions that z-values can be misleading when drawn from large samples, consequently, with 1,248 responses the z-scores should be interpreted with a degree of thought and deliberation.

Finally, the distribution of scores was quantified through both the K-S, and S-W tests. Both tests helped to determine the extent of multivariate normality of distributions by measuring the distributions from the sample as a whole, against an equivalent normal distribution (Field 2009). K-S and S-W tests resulting in significant results (i.e., $p < .05$), are indicative of a significant deviation from a normal distribution, while non-significant results (i.e., $p > .05$) suggest the scores are normally distributed (Field 2009; Pallant 2011). The results of both tests are presented in Appendix 17 and are highly significant. Consequently, the results of both tests suggest significant deviation from normal distribution, and support the notion that the sample is not normally distributed. Field (2009) cautions that the K-S and S-W tests can be overly affected by very small deviations from normal distribution when applied to large sample sizes. Consequently, these results merely contribute to the other steps taken to determine the extent of normality of the sample.

Having explored the distribution of the sample visually via histograms, and quantifiably through examining kurtosis and skewness statistics, as well z-scores for kurtosis and skewness along with applying the K-S and S-W tests, the assumption of normality can be

confidently rejected. Although all methods used to ascertain normality can be criticised to a certain extent, the results of all four techniques support the sample being non-normally distributed and, thus, that its distribution deviates from that of a normally distributed population. Consequently, the data collected and used in this study, are not normally distributed.

5.3.3 Common method variance

As with all self-reported data, common method variance (CMV) has the potential to negatively affect the research (Liang et al. 2007; Podsakoff et al. 2003). CMV can be described as “variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than the constructs the measures represent” (Podsakoff et al. 2003 p. 879), essentially, CMV occurs through respondents answering in a uniform manner, questions pertaining to different variables (Chang et al. 2010; Podsakoff et al. 2003). As a consequence, the data can inaccurately suggest relationships existing between variables, resulting in type I and type II errors (Chang et al. 2010). While some researchers consider any research reliant on responses to a single survey, conducted at one time inherently vulnerable to CMV and consequently of little value (Campbell 1982). Some researchers have suggested CMV itself is a myth (Spector 1987), while most now take a pragmatic view in accordance with Podsakoff et al. (2003 p. 900) that “common method variance is often a problem and researchers need to do whatever they can to control for it”. To minimise the problem of CMV in this research, several best practice strategies were employed (Chang et al. 2010; Podsakoff et al. 2003). Participants were first informed that all responses would be treated as, and remain, anonymous; consequently, reducing social desirability bias and contributing to ascertaining respondents’ genuine attitudes and feelings. Both independent and dependent constructs were located in different parts of the questionnaire. Harman’s single-factor test was used to assess CMV by entering all the principal constructs into an exploratory factor analysis. The findings of the factor analysis showed 10 factors (F_1 : 19.139; F_2 : 3.437; F_3 : 2.837; F_4 : 2.111; F_5 : 1.732; F_6 : 1.619; F_7 : 1.180; F_8 : 1.095; F_9 : 1.045; F_{10} : 1.010) with Eigenvalues greater than 1, and the highest portion of variance explained by one factor was 35% (i.e., less than 50% which did not explain most of the variance). Further, a common method factor was applied to the structural model in PLS step by step (Liang et al. 2007). The results demonstrated all loadings of the indicators to the common method factor were non-significant. The average variance of the indicators explained by the corresponding construct of interest was 60.6%, while the

average method-based variance was 1.1%, yielding a ratio of 55:1. Ultimately, the results suggested CMV was not biasing the results.

5.3.4 Analytical technique

This research used structural equation modelling (SEM) as an analysis approach. SEM can be broadly described as: "...a class of methodologies that seeks to represent hypotheses about summary statistics derived from empirical measurements in terms of a smaller number of "structural" parameters defined by a hypothesized underlying model." (Kaplan 2009 p. 1).

Furthermore, SEM is noted for its ability to combine factor with path analysis into one statistically valid methodology (Kaplan 2009). Typically, SEM analysis follows an iterative engagement with theory and an hypothesised model, before sampling and measurement (undertaken during data collection), estimation (empirical testing of the model), a second iterative process involving assessment of model fit and subsequent modification, before discussion of the model's implications on theoretical understanding (Kaplan 2009). Within Kaplan's (2009) methodological SEM umbrella reside two dominant analytical techniques: Covariance based SEM (CB-SEM), and partial least squares SEM (PLS-SEM). Neither of these techniques should be confused with a third relative of the SEM family, PLS regression, which is generally not applicable to latent constructs, and most commonly applied within the natural sciences (Hair et al. 2011; Tenenhaus et al. 2005). Within marketing and management research CB-SEM has historically seen broader application than PLS-SEM, possibly due to the greater maturity of the former, and comparably recent proliferation of the latter (Hair et al. 2011), a position bemoaned by Hair et al. (2011 p. 139) who maintain "...the method has many benefits not offered by CB-SEM.". CB-SEM fundamentally differs from PLS-SEM in that it is primarily useful for theory testing, and theory confirmation, whereas PLS-SEM is most useful for theory development, and prediction (Hair et al. 2011; Hair et al. 2014). PLS-SEM is conducive to generating a path analysis model which is essentially a visual depiction of the variables and relationships explored in the research (Hair et al. 2012; Hair et al. 2014). As Figure 9 shows, path analysis models within PLS-SEM can include both exogenous and endogenous variables.

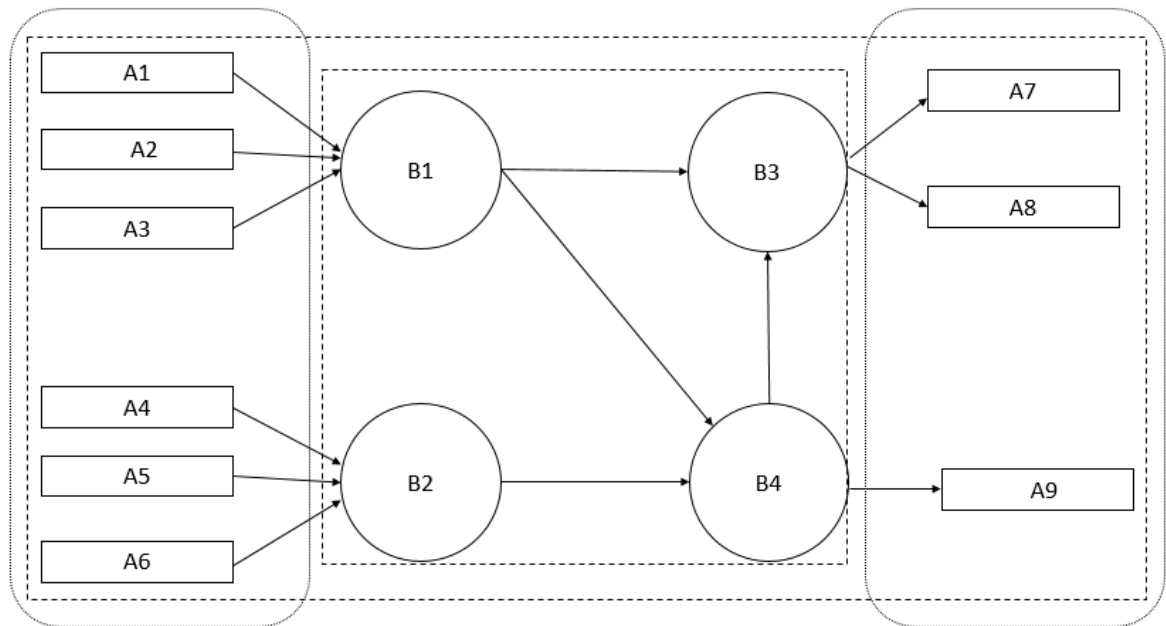


Figure 9: Path model showing exogenous and endogenous variables

Figure 9 represents an example path model typical of PLS-SEM. Within this model, the arrows represent the direction of relationship, and are suggestive of causality. The central square of the diagram (hosting B1 - B4) represents the structural or inner model while both rounded rectangles (hosting A1-A9) constitute the measurement or outer models, which convey information on the relationships between the construct, and its indicator variables. The outer models comprise of both exogenous variables which are explanatory of constructs within the model, and endogenous variables which are explained by constructs within the model (Hair et al. 2014). This research employed PLS-SEM as the analytical procedure, further justification, and explanation of this is now offered.

PLS-SEM has become firmly established, and extensively applied to the realms of marketing, management, and social science research (Vinzi et al. 2010), and essentially works in two stages presented in Table 40 below.

Table 40: PLS-SEM Algorithmic Analysis Process

Adapted from (Hair et al. 2011)

PLS-SEM Algorithmic Analysis Process	Description
<u>Stage 1</u> : Construct scores are estimated iteratively.	Steps (a) to (d) are iteratively conducted, until the eventual sum of the outer weight is appropriately low (usually pre-set at 10 ⁻⁵) thus ensuring the PLS-SEM algorithm's convergence.
a) Scores of the outer constructs are calculated, informed by outer coefficients from (d).	
b) Proxy scores for the inter-construct relationships are estimated.	At the second stage, the ordinary least squares method is used to analyse all coefficients within the model via partial regression until they converge (Unless they converge previously in step (d) of stage 1).
c) Scores of the inner constructs are calculated, informed by (a) and (b).	
d) Coefficient proxies within the model are estimated (informed by c)).	
<u>Stage 2</u>	The resultant scores consequently form the basis of the ordinary least squares regressions analysis for the constructs yielding estimations of structural model relationships (path coefficients).
a) The ordinary least squares technique is applied to each partial regression in the model, to determine final estimations of coefficients (including outer weights and structural model relationships).	

As Table 40 shows, the PLS-SEM is an iterative process, resulting in a reliable estimate of path coefficients rendering PLS-SEM commensurate with the goals of this research in determining relationships between brand heritage, *communitas*, brand image, engagement, satisfaction with management and affective commitment. There were three reasons justifying the use of PLS-SEM. Principally, PLS-SEM is appropriate for application to research positioned at the early stages of theory building and exploration, and where previously omitted constructs are incorporated into research and empirically explored (i.e., brand heritage and *communitas*) (Hair et al. 2014; Leal-Rodrigues et al. 2015). Furthermore, PLS-SEM's statistical properties ensure accurate and reliable model estimations regardless of whether data is normally, or non-normally distributed (Cassel et al. 1999; Hair et al. 2014), rendering it an appropriate analysis technique for this sample which, as previously discussed, is non-normally distributed. Finally, PLS-SEM is versatile, and can be used in reflective (i.e., causality is from the scale to its indicators), formative (i.e., the indicator's caused by scale), and higher-order modes (Hair et al. 2014; Lee et al. 2016; Taheri et al. 2014a); consequently, mandating its inclusion in this research, which included both higher-order and reflective constructs in the model.

PLS-SEM deals with non-normal data through, and conducive to, application of bootstrapping (Hair et al. 2014). Essentially, bootstrapping is a procedure that represents a solution to analysing non-normal data (Efron and Tibshirani 1994). The process works by effectively considering the sample data as the population, and taking numerous sub-samples (i.e., bootstraps) from it (Field 2009). This process is repeated many times

(replacing the previously extracted sample each time), statistics of interest such as the mean are computed for each sub-sample, consequently allowing a standard error to be estimated based upon the standard deviation of the bootstrapped sub-sample distributions (Field 2009). Within SmartPLS 3.0, the practical process of conducting bootstrapping can be achieved through the following steps (Hair et al. 2014; SmartPLS 2015):

- Calibration of how many subsamples (bootstraps) are to be generated (generally 5,000) although early testing may opt to use a smaller amount to save computational time.
- A set number of cases are selected and replaced to generate estimations of the model 5,000 times.
- SmartPLS 3.0 estimates item loadings and path coefficients through generating *t*-values.
- The researcher considers the generated *t*-value results in relation to the *t*-distribution table, allowing for a significance assessment. Consequently, significance of item loadings and path coefficients for the structural model can be determined.

To summarise, both the measurement and structural model were examined using the non-parametric PLS-SEM approach, through the widely used reliable SmartPLS 3.0 software (Ringle et al. 2014). PLS-SEM, a non-parametric analysis approach, was applied utilising the bootstrapping technique with 1248 cases, and 5000 (bootstrap) subsamples (Hair et al. 2014).

5.3.5 *Reflective and formative measures*

SEM management-oriented research most often explores structural relationships between latent variables (i.e., constructs) through statistically determining values, allowing assumptions to be made of the effect of construct A, upon construct B, and suggestions of how this effect can be enhanced or minimised (Bollen and Lennox 1991; Coltman et al. 2008). In such cases, where construct A has causal effect on its indicators the measurement model is described as reflective, meaning the construct has effect (reflects) on its indicators (Becker et al. 2012; Coltman et al. 2008; Diamantopoulos and Sigauw 2006; Hair et al. 2014). Within reflective measurement models error manifests as inability of the construct to fully explain consequent measured variables (Coltman et al. 2008). Commonly used management research constructs such as commitment, or personality, are conducive to the reflective measurement model which is illustrated in Figure 10.

As Figure 10 shows, an essential aspect of reflective scales is that the arrows are directed outward from the construct; furthermore, it should be noted that omission, substitution, or alteration of an indicator does not affect the construct. Additionally, the items within a reflective measurement model should co-vary in order to function effectively (Chin 2010; Diamantopoulos et al. 2012; Götz et al. 2010; Hair et al. 2010).

More recently, researchers have taken tacit steps to applying formative measures to management SEM research (Coltman et al. 2008). Formative models differ from their reflective counterparts principally through the direction of their causal relationships, resulting in the measured variables themselves causing the manifestation of the construct, thus the arrow points from the indicators towards the construct (Bollen and Lennox 1991; Coltman et al. 2008; Diamantopoulos and Siguaw 2006; Hair et al. 2010).

Methodologically, formative measures can be more challenging to validate than reflective models, requiring external construct validity but allowing for the omission of internal consistency checks (predicated on the complete observability of the items which cause the construct) (Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer 2001; Hair et al. 2010). Furthermore, constituent items within formative models need not be theoretically correlated to each other; only as a composite relative to accompanying constructs (Hair et al. 2010). Unlike reflective measurement models, items are not required to co-vary and can be independent; dropping items, however, impacts on the resulting meaning of the constructs (as it is caused by the indicators), and thus should be avoided (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw 2006; Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer 2001; Hair et al. 2010). In relation to error within formative measurement models, Diamantopoulos (2006) suggests researchers should not infer estimations of overall model error from indicator error as it is impossible to determine which indicators are specifically responsible for the error. Consequently, validation of formative measurement models is generally reliant on external validation and should be considered with care (Diamantopoulos 2006; Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer 2001; Hair et al. 2010).

Diamantopoulos (2006 p. 7) highlights the underuse of formative measurement models in marketing research which “until recently has been characterized by an almost blind adherence to the reflective measurement perspective...”. A situation exacerbated by researchers regularly mistaking formative for reflective models through their lack of, or misunderstanding of the differences (Diamantopoulos 2008; Hair et al. 2010). Nevertheless, a notable example of a formative measurement model includes socio-

economic status, where the constituent indicators (e.g., education, occupation, income) ultimately constitute the resultant construct (Bollen and Lennox 1991).

Examples of both reflective (a) and formative (b) models are illustrated in (Figure 10 below).

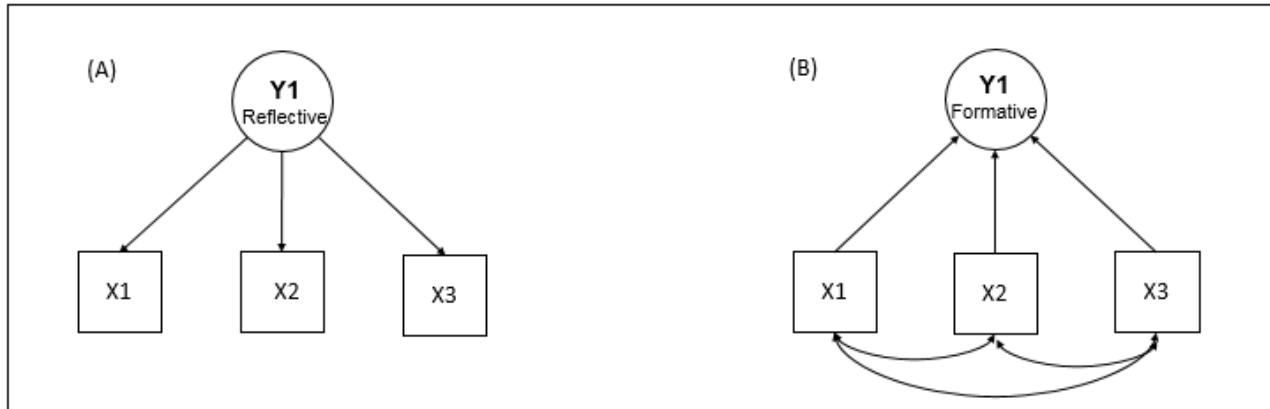


Figure 10: Reflective and Formative Models

Adapted from Bollen and Lennox 1991; Hair et al. 2014; Hair et al. 2010

Ultimately, as described in section 5.3.4, PLS-SEM allows for the analysis of both formative, and reflective measurement models, (Hair et al. 2014), mandating its use in this research which includes both reflective and formative measures. Furthermore, incorporating formative measures in this research allows it to offer a further methodological contribution: advancing application of often overlooked formative measures within the domain of business research. The next section considers higher-order models, and explains their relevance to the current study.

5.3.6 Higher-order models

Measurement models can comprise of either first- (i.e., a single layer of constructs), or second-order (i.e., a composite of two layers and several first-order constructs) models (Hair et al. 2014; Ringle et al. 2012; Wetzels et al. 2009). Thus, higher-order constructs enable numerous first-order constructs to be “...operationalized at higher levels of abstraction.” (Hair et al. 2014 p. 39) within research models; therefore, the abstract theoretical construct is represented by the higher-order component (HOC) which comprises of its sub dimensions manifesting as the lower-order component (LOC). For example, within this research, both brand image and work engagement were operationalised as higher-order models, comprising a combination of their constituent lower-order constructs (brand image: usefulness, efficiency, affect and dynamism; engagement: vigour, dedication and absorption). These are illustrated in Figure 11.

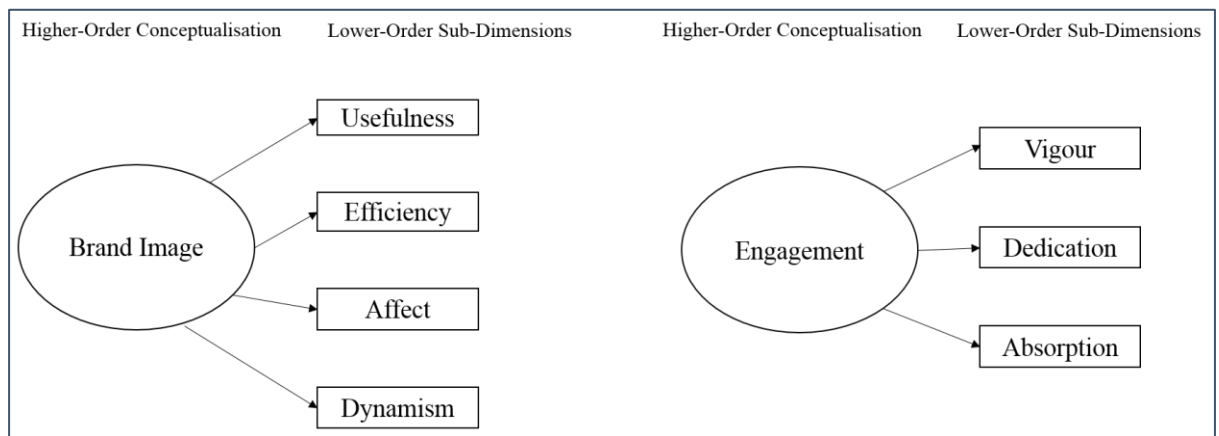


Figure 11: Higher-order models used in this research

Higher-order models can typically be conceived through a bottom-up, or top-down approach (Hair et al. 2014). The bottom-up approach begins with multiple constructs subsequently combined into one higher-order construct whereas top-down conceptualisations commence with a larger, broad construct, that is comprised of its sub dimension constructs, which are indicated in the higher-order model (Hair et al. 2014). The latter, top-down approach was used in this research for both higher-order constructs. The use of higher-order constructs can be justified for three reasons; Hair et al. (2014) describe these as:

- They allow greater clarity and focus, especially within complex PLS path models, as the number of constructs requiring illustration is compressed.
- The use of higher-order models can help mitigate the risk of collinearity issues in situations where the constructs are highly correlated.
- Additional methodological advantages can be gained from using higher-order models, for example refinement of formative indicators in cases where they exhibit high collinearity, into several higher-order models.

PLS-SEM researchers offer a typology of higher-order models, categorised into four types: reflective-reflective, reflective-formative, formative-reflective, formative-formative. These types are explained in Table 41 below.

Table 41: Higher Order Model Types**Adapted from: (Hair et al. 2014; Jarvis et al. 2003; Ringle et al. 2012)**

Higher-order model type	Description
Reflective-reflective	Several indicators comprise the reflective lower-order model, which reflectively feed into an encompassing abstract, higher-order model.
Reflective-formative	Several indicators comprise the reflective lower-order model, which are then absorbed by the higher-order model which formatively affects its indicators.
Formative-reflective	Several indicators comprise the formative lower-order model, which then is reflectively related to a reflective higher order model.
Formative-formative	Both the lower and higher order models are formative, converging upon the higher-order model.

As Table 41 shows, numerous combinations of higher-order models are possible. The makeup of these models is guided by two principles, namely lower-order models can have either formative, or reflective indicators, and, lower-order constructs as a whole, can be either formative or reflective in nature and comprise a higher-order construct (Jarvis et al. 2003). Furthermore, predicated on them incorporating a combination of formative, and reflective indicators, lower and higher-order models can be a mix of formative and reflective (Hair et al. 2014; Jarvis et al. 2003).

Given the variation of higher-order model types, it is important to clarify that this research incorporated two higher-order models (brand image and engagement). Both were operationalised as reflective-reflective higher-order models, for which PLS-SEM can effectively analyse.

5.4 Part A: Analysis of Reflective Measurement Model

Hair et al. (2014) suggest three stages should be followed in evaluating PLS-SEM results. First, reflective models should be assessed for internal consistency, indicator reliability (through factor loadings), convergent validity (through average variance extracted), and discriminant validity (Part A). Following these examinations, the formative models should then be evaluated in terms of content specification, convergent validity, indicator specification and collinearity, and the significance and external validity (Part B). Upon completion of these checks, the structural model (including higher-order constructs) itself should be evaluated through ascertaining coefficients (R^2), predictive relevance (Q^2) as well as size and significance evaluations of path coefficients. Finally, f^2 and q^2 effect sizes should be determined (Part C). Following Hair et al.'s (2014) recommended evaluation process, the results of these analyses are presented in three sections.

5.4.1 Internal consistency reliability

Ensuring construct indicators accurately and equitably measure their parent construct is important in generating useful and reliable results. For example, if numerous indicators

are found to be failing to measure a construct, while others are, it may indicate problems with the sample, or fundamental weaknesses inherent in the measurement scale (Götz et al. 2010; Hair et al. 2014). To ascertain construct validity, researchers can evaluate the composite reliability and Cronbach alpha's (Hair et al. 2014).

Composite reliability differs to the Cronbach alpha through its inclusion of specific factor loadings, rather than utilising equal weightings (Hair et al. 2014). Manifesting as a value between 0 and 1, higher values are indicative of increased reliability suggesting the extent to which its indicators accurately measure the construct they comprise (Götz et al. 2010; Hair et al. 2014). Generally, for exploratory research, composite reliability scores of 0.60 to 0.70 suggest adequate composite reliability and between 0.70 and 0.90 for developed research (Götz et al. 2010; Hair et al. 2014; Nunnally and Bernstein 1994). The equation for composite reliability is shown in Figure 12. Researchers should be cautious of scores below the 0.60 level, as these suggest limited internal consistency reliability, while also being wary of particularly high scores (e.g., >0.90) which suggest indicators are measuring the same facet of the construct and could be symptomatic of more serious underlying issues affecting the research (e.g., incorporation of redundant items).

$$\rho_{\omega^2} = \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i)^2}{(\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^k \delta_i}$$

Figure 12: Composite Reliability Equation

The composite reliability results are presented in Table 42 below.

Table 42: Composite Reliability (CR)

Reflective Model Measure	Composite Reliability
Absorption	0.807
Affect	0.947
Affective Com	0.758
BI	0.937
Communitas	0.907
Dedication	0.894
Dynamism	0.929
Efficiency	0.874
Management Sat	0.936
Usefulness	0.858
Vigour	0.883
WEng	0.906

As can be seen in Table 42, composite reliability scores for all reflective measures in the model range from 0.758 to 0.947, above the suggested minimum threshold of 0.60. Although the highest score 0.947 (Affect) is within the region of concern (e.g., > 0.90) (Hair et al. 2014), the model can be described as having a good level of construct reliability.

Cronbach's alpha represents another method of reliability assessment through evaluating the inter-correlations occurring within the observed variables towards determining the internal consistency of a scale (Cronbach 1951; Cronbach and Meehl 1955; Götz et al. 2010; Hair et al. 2014). Unlike composite reliability, Cronbach's alpha can often underestimate internal consistency reliability and struggles with missing data (although not a concern in this study) thus, results should be taken as guidance, but not absolute confirmation (Hair et al. 2014). Cronbach's alpha is determined through the following equation (Figure 13) where N denotes the number of indicators, and \bar{r} the average correlation:

$$\alpha = \frac{N \cdot \bar{r}}{(1 + (N - 1) \cdot \bar{r})}$$

Figure 13: Cronbach's Alpha

Cronbach alpha results have similar thresholds to the composite reliability test, with 0.6 or higher being deemed acceptable. Cronbach alpha results for the reflective measurement model are presented in Table 43 below:

Table 43: Cronbach's Alpha (α)

Reflective Model Measure	Cronbach's Alpha
Absorption	0.641
Affect	0.925
Affective Com	0.781
BI	0.927
Communitas	0.877
Dedication	0.822
Dynamism	0.848
Efficiency	0.820
Management Sat	0.921
Usefulness	0.750
Vigour	0.802
WEng	0.882

As Table 43 shows Cronbach alpha results range from 0.641 to 0.927 for the reflective model measures, suggesting the measurement scales have a very high level of internal reliability.

Having determined acceptable levels of internal reliability within the reflective measurement scales used in this research, it is important to note that reliability is not the sole determinant of validity, which requires fulfilment of additional conditions (Hair et al. 2014). Consequently, factor loadings for each variable in the reflective model will now be examined.

5.4.2 Factor loadings

Factor loadings should be assessed as they offer information on the extent to which the variables comprising a study explain encompassing factors and, thus, allow characteristics of the relationships between the variables, and the factors to be inferred (Field 2009; Hair et al. 2010). Essentially, factor loading results indicate the extent a variable is explained by a factor (Hair et al. 2014). Consequently, factor loadings can be evaluated in the first instance in relation to the acceptable range, given factor loadings range from -1 to 1, results of +/- .30 to +/- .40 are acceptable, while results of +/- .50, are strong indicators that the underlying factor is explaining the variable (Hair et al. 2014; Hair et al. 2010).

Additionally, a *t*-test (to assess statistical significance of results) should be conducted (Field 2009; Hair et al. 2010). Given sample size influences, to an extent, acceptable result boundaries, for sample sizes greater than 350 and situated within similar fields of study, results of +/- .40 are considered a suitable cut-off (Field 2009; Kim and Mueller 1978) Both the factor loadings and accompanying *t*- test statistics are presented in Table 44:

Table 44: Factor loadings

Note: t-values for the item loadings to two-tailed test: $t > 1.96$ at $p < .05$, $t > 2.57$ at $p < .01$, $t > 3.29$ at $p < .001$

Items	Loading	T Statistics
Q5_1 <- Dedication	0.882	85.657
Q5_1 <- Work Engagement	0.787	51.288
Q5_2 <- Absorption	0.845	84.751
Q5_2 <- Work Engagement	0.802	62.832
Q5_3 <- Dedication	0.852	71.349
Q5_3 <- Work Engagement	0.818	59.589
Q5_4 <- Dedication	0.842	63.272
Q5_4 <- Work Engagement	0.728	37.901
Q5_5 <- Absorption	0.710	28.538
Q5_5 <- Work Engagement	0.703	21.904
Q4_1 <- Vigour	0.819	63.365
Q4_1 <- Work Engagement	0.747	33.533
Q4_2 <- Vigour	0.845	76.312
Q4_2 <- Work Engagement	0.753	31.227
Q4_3 <- Vigour	0.874	104.764
Q4_3 <- Work Engagement	0.736	42.755
Q4_4 <- Absorption	0.729	37.535
Q4_4 <- Work Engagement	0.779	33.882
Q6_1 <- Management Satisfaction	0.727	40.356
Q6_2 <- Management Satisfaction	0.798	63.317
Q6_3 <- Management Satisfaction	0.801	50.776
Q6_4 <- Management Satisfaction	0.815	71.035
Q6_5 <- Management Satisfaction	0.771	47.217
Q6_6 <- Management Satisfaction	0.758	54.350
Q6_7 <- Management Satisfaction	0.879	115.474
Q6_8 <- Management Satisfaction	0.869	104.612
Q7_10 <- Affective Commitment	0.775	4.319
Q7_11 <- Affective Commitment	0.776	11.640
Q7_12 <- Affective Commitment	0.744	38.984
Q7_13 <- Affective Commitment	0.710	12.909
Q7_6 <- Affective Commitment	0.713	9.380
Q7_7 <- Affective Commitment	0.802	60.282
Q7_8 <- Affective Commitment	0.796	49.320
Q7_9 <- Affective Commitment	0.776	21.846
Q3_12 <- Communitas	0.770	12.298
Q2_1 <- Usefulness	0.765	52.572
Q2_10 <- Affect	0.909	115.949
Q2_11 <- Affect	0.912	105.866
Q2_12 <- Affect	0.886	87.707
Q2_13 <- Dynamism	0.931	161.927
Q2_14 <- Dynamism	0.933	175.858
Q2_2 <- Usefulness	0.861	79.662

Q2_3 <- Usefulness	0.823	60.742
Q2_4 <- Efficiency	0.813	68.640
Q2_5 <- Efficiency	0.779	31.595
Q2_6 <- Efficiency	0.825	74.485
Q2_7 <- Efficiency	0.734	40.016
Q2_8 <- Efficiency	0.758	57.896
Q2_8 <- Brand Image	0.700	42.817
Q2_9 <- Affect	0.908	115.283
Q3_1 <- Communitas	0.787	44.244
Q3_2 <- Communitas	0.724	36.995
Q3_3 <- Communitas	0.839	64.610
Q3_4 <- Communitas	0.815	49.037
Q3_5 <- Communitas	0.857	70.490
Q3_6 <- Communitas	0.811	57.936

Table 44 shows that question Q2_14 pertaining to the dynamism factor of brand image, was the highest loading (0.933) while the lowest (Q2_8), at 0.700 was still well within the recommended cut off of +/- .50. Furthermore, all factor loadings are significant. Ultimately, analysis of the factor loadings suggests all variables exhibit good levels of explanatory power regarding their associated factors.

5.4.3 Convergent validity

Convergent validity evaluates the extent of positive correlation between various indicators of a particular construct (Hair et al. 2014). Thus, in reflective models, the various indicators can demonstrate convergent validity through the extent to which they display common variance characteristics; essentially, researchers explore convergent validity to show indicators that should exhibit a relationship, do so (Hair et al. 2014).

Establishing the average variance extracted (AVE) indicates the convergent validity exhibited at the construct level within the sample and allows inferences to be made regarding the likelihood of random measurement error. AVE can be defined as the "...grand mean value of the squared loadings of the indicators associated with the construct" (Hair et al. 2014 p. 103), thus, AVE indicates the relatedness, or communality of constructs.

The significance of AVE results can be assessed in the same way as individual indicators, thus constructs should be able to explain at least half (0.50) of their variance, meaning the construct explains more than half the variance of its indicators, on average, as opposed to an AVE result of less than 0.50, which would suggest more variance amongst indicators is on average explained by error, than the construct (Götz et al. 2010; Hair et al. 2014). The equation for determining convergent validity through AVE is shown in Figure 14:

$$AVE_j = \frac{\phi_{jj} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{k_j} \lambda_{ij}^2}{\phi_{jj} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{k_j} \lambda_{ij}^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{k_j} \theta_{ii}}$$

Figure 14: Convergent Validity

k_j = number of indicators

λ_{ij} = loading of the i^{th} indicator

ϕ_{jj} = empirical variance of the latent variable ζ_j

θ_{ii} = error variance of the i^{th} indicator

Table 46 shows that the AVE results for all reflective constructs was >0.50, meaning the constructs explained, on average, more than half of the variance amongst the indicators. Consequently, convergent validity for the reflective measures is confirmed.

Table 45: AVE Results for all Reflective Constructs

Construct	AVE
Absorption	0.583
Affect	0.817
Affective Com	0.556
BI	0.520
Communitas	0.589
Dedication	0.738
Dynamism	0.868
Efficiency	0.583
Management Sat	0.646
Usefulness	0.668
Vigour	0.717
WEng	0.519

5.4.4 Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity is concerned with statistically establishing the uniqueness of theoretical constructs within the model, and represents the final stage of validation in confirmatory factor analysis (Chin 1998; Fornell and Larcker 1981; Götz et al. 2010; Hair et al. 2014). Specifically, one demonstrably accurate method for establishing the effect of discriminant validity is through applying the Fornell-Larcker criterion. When the results of the Fornell-Larcker criterion present the AVE of each construct (including lower-order model elements) as greater than the common variances (squared correlations) of any alternative constructs in the model, discriminant validity is shown.

The Fornell-Larcker criterion is illustrated in the form of a cross-correlation matrix, conveying the squared roots of AVE in relation to inter-construct (including lower-order model elements) correlations for all reflective model constructs. When assessing the results of the cross-correlation matrix (see Table 46 below) the square root of each

construct's AVE is positioned on the diagonal track, whereas each inter-construct's common variances are not.

Table 46: Discriminant Validity Cross-Correlation Matrix for Reflective Constructs

	Absorption	Affect	AC	BH	BI	Communitas	Dedication	Dynamism	Efficiency	SM	Usefulness	Vigour	WE
Absorption	0.764												
Affect	0.518	0.904											
AC	0.570	0.467	0.746										
BH	0.567	0.597	0.548										
BI	0.558	0.599	0.479	N/A	0.721								
Communitas	0.508	0.548	0.552	0.542	0.527	0.768							
Dedication	0.512	0.533	0.575	0.539	0.566	0.501	0.859						
Dynamism	0.489	0.533	0.459	0.586	0.533	0.566	0.523	0.932					
Efficiency	0.466	0.659	0.362	0.466	0.579	0.551	0.454	0.537	0.764				
SM	0.477	0.512	0.492	0.499	0.591	0.524	0.466	0.543	0.559	0.804			
Usefulness	0.417	0.566	0.341	0.635	0.572	0.467	0.410	0.530	0.541	0.376	0.817		
Vigour	0.607	0.412	0.446	0.439	0.461	0.516	0.538	0.378	0.436	0.403	0.315	0.847	
WE	0.517	0.559	0.507	0.588	0.504	0.557	0.508	0.532	0.515	0.512	0.436	0.504	N/A

NB: Affective Commitment (AC), Brand Heritage (BH), Brand Image (BI), Satisfaction with Management (SM), Work Engagement (WE).

As shown in Table 46, the square roots of the AVEs (positioned on the diagonals) show higher values than the cross-correlations. Also, the correlations among all constructs were well below the 0.70 threshold, so they were distinct from one another (Hair et al., 2012). Consequently, discriminant validity is shown to have been empirically met for the reflective model (including lower-order constructs), suggesting the measures used are both theoretically, and empirically valid (Hair et al. 2014).

5.5 Part B: Analysis of the Brand Heritage Measurement Model

Evaluation approaches for formative measures differ considerably from those used to assess their reflective counterparts, yet have been wrongly applied with alarming regularity in the past (Hair et al. 2012; Hair et al. 2014). Notably, predicated on the assumption (within PLS-SEM) that formative indicators entirely capture the facets of the phenomenon being examined (Diamantopoulos 2006) (e.g., error free), assessment of correlation patterns can yield little value (Hair et al. 2014). Consequently, determining composite reliability and AVE values should be replaced by alternative approaches. The index development procedure for constructing formative (i.e., the indicators cause the construct) indexes (Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer 2001; Dickinger and Stangl 2013; Lee et al. 2016) including content specification, indicator specification, indicator collinearity, external validity and nomological validity was adopted and will now be discussed.

5.5.1 Content specification

Prior to an empirical assessment of the formative model, content specification should be examined, this is particularly important with regard to formative constructs in order for every aspect of the construct to be confirmed as being assessed via its indicators (Götz et al. 2010; Hair et al. 2014; Petter et al. 2007). Arguably, this process is somewhat qualitative as it involves a degree of subjectivity, and for the researcher to make judgements regarding the completeness of representation of the constructs' formative indicators (Bollen and Lennox 1991). In line with suggested practice, the researcher assessed all indicators of the formative construct through a series of discussions with academics possessing relevant expertise (Petter et al. 2007). Supported through previous literature, the facets of brand heritage examined included assessing continuity, success images, bonding, orientation, cultural value, cultural meaning, imagination, familiarity,

myth, credibility, knowledge, identity value, identity meaning, differentiation, and prestige Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Furthermore, the indicators of brand heritage have been demonstrated as appropriate, and subjected to successful content specification assessment in previous literature (Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Although identification of unnecessary items, or indeed omitted elements of the construct, would result in its overall meaning being augmented, based on the results of discussion with experts, and indications from the literature, this was not deemed necessary in the case of the formative brand heritage construct (Hair et al. 2014; Petter et al. 2007).

5.5.2 *Indicator reliability*

Unlike their reflective counterparts where factor loadings are appropriate, ascertaining indicator reliability in formative measures should be conducted through analysing factor weights for each item, and associated t values (to assess the significance of the weights) (Hair et al. 2014). The factor weights are the product of a regression procedure, whereby each indicator for the formative measure acts as the independent variable and the latent formative construct (brand heritage) is the dependent variable (Hair et al. 2010). The resultant factor weights allow for a judgement of each indicator's contribution (i.e., 0.5., meaning the indicator explains 50% of the formative construct). To determine the statistical significance of the indicators requires the factor weights be used to generate t statistics (Hair et al. 2014). Bootstrapping is then conducted (see section 5.3.4), to generate t statistics. As the composite brand heritage construct is comprised formatively of its indicators, the resultant factor weights suggest the extent to which each indicator correlates to the overall meaning of the construct (Hair et al. 2010; Hair et al. 2014). In practice, formative indicator weightings are lower than those shown by reliable reflective measures; furthermore, unlike reflective indicators, uncovering formative model indicators of low significance can be more problematic as the dropping of items is not possible without extensive theoretical support from the literature (Götz et al. 2010; Hair et al. 2010; Hair et al. 2014). Both factor weights and t statistics for the formative brand heritage scale indicators are shown in Table 47 below:

Table 47: Brand Heritage Factor Weights and t-Statistics.

Notes: t-values for the item loadings to two-tailed test: $t > 1.96$ at $p < .05$, $t > 2.57$ at $p < .01$, $t > 3.29$ at $p < .001$

Brand Heritage Items	Weights	T statistics
The Scouts are very continuous. (Continuity)	.10	2.08
The Scouts are related to images of success. (Success-images)	.22	4.36
I am bonded to the Scouts. (Bonding)	.19	4.34
The Scouts set the valuation standard for other organisations. (Orientation)	.16	2.07
The experiences of the Scouts promote a certain way of living. (Culture-meaning)	.10	2.83
My familiarity with the Scouts is very high. (Familiarity)	.06	2.83
The Scouts have a strong cultural meaning. (Myth)	-.05	2.50
The experiences of the Scouts are a part of national treasure. (Cultural-value)	.12	2.25
I have an absolutely clear imagination of the Scouts. (Imagination)	.15	2.15
The Scouts represent honesty and truthfulness. (Credibility)	.21	4.12
The Scouts are highly known in the society. (Knowledge)	-.05	2.01
The Scouts has a strong brand identity. (Identity-value)	.10	1.98
If someone praises the Scouts, to me, it is a personal compliment. (Identity-meaning)	.21	4.50
The Scouts are very unique compared to other brands. (Differentiation)	-.12	2.59
The Scouts have a very good reputation. (Prestige)	.139	2.80

Relating to this research, Table 47 shows that the outer weights for the brand heritage indicators hold a range of values, ranging from -.12 to .139. However, outer weights have been noted as unreliable in assessing formative measure indicator reliability, primarily due to an on average decrease in weight values when more indicators are added (Cenfetelli and Bassellier 2009; Hair et al. 2014). Examination of the *t* statistics showed

all items were statistically significant ($t > 1.96$ at a significance level of 5%) in relation to the meaning of brand heritage. Consequently, there is a statistical effect attributable to the indicators for the brand heritage construct.

5.5.3 *Indicator collinearity*

In addition to indicator reliability and content specification (i.e., checking the indicators are representative of the construct), it is important to ensure indicators are not exhibiting high levels of inter-indicator covariance (i.e., collinearity), as this can lead to both higher standard error complicating indicator reliability attempts, as well as miscalculated indicator weights (Hair et al. 2014). Collinearity is assessed through establishing the variance inflation factor (VIF) (which measures the effect of collinearity), determined by convention to not exceed 5. (Hair et al. 2010; Hair et al. 2014). VIF results above 5 are suggestive of high collinearity. Consequently, collinearity of brand heritage was tested within this research, the results are presented in Table 48 below:

Table 48: VIF of Brand Heritage

Brand Heritage Items	VIF
The Scouts are very continuous. (Continuity)	1.23
The Scouts are related to images of success. (Success-images)	1.52
I am bonded to the Scouts. (Bonding)	1.29
The Scouts set the valuation standard for other organisations. (Orientation)	1.96
The experiences of the Scouts promote a certain way of living. (Culture-meaning)	1.49
My familiarity with the Scouts is very high. (Familiarity)	1.62
The Scouts have a strong cultural meaning. (Myth)	1.46
The experiences of the Scouts are a part of national treasure. (Cultural-value)	1.84
I have an absolutely clear imagination of the Scouts. (Imagination)	2.39
The Scouts represent honesty and truthfulness. (Credibility)	1.50
The Scouts are highly known in the society. (Knowledge)	1.91
The Scouts has a strong brand identity. (Identity-value)	1.39
If someone praises the Scouts, to me, it is a personal compliment. (Identity-meaning)	2.12
The Scouts are very unique compared to other brands. (Differentiation)	1.33
The Scouts have a very good reputation. (Prestige)	1.44

The VIF results presented in Table 48 range from 1.23 to 2.39, comfortably below the threshold of 5. Thus, the results demonstrate acceptably low levels of collinearity and that multicollinearity was not a concern for the formative brand heritage construct.

5.5.4 External Validity

External validity essentially indicates the usefulness and generalisability of the construct for alternative studies and, again, due to the inability to reduce the number of indicators for formative measurement models requires an approach specific to formative models (Hair et al. 2014). Thus, for external validation, each brand heritage indicator was assessed to ascertain its correlation with a ‘global item’ encompassing the overall character of the brand heritage scale, mandating development of an additional statement: ‘In my opinion, this organisation is a brand with heritage’. Correlation between the

individual brand heritage indicators and the additional ‘global item’ was assessed through Spearman’s rank correlation coefficient, which can assess statistical dependence between two items, and is appropriate for non-parametric data (Field 2009; Hair et al. 2014). The results of which are shown in Table 49 below:

Table 49: Test for External Validity of the Formative Measures.

Note: * $p < 0.05$; N.B. (2-tailed)

Brand Heritage Items	Spearman’s rank correlation coefficient*
This brand is very continuous	.36
This brand is related to images of success	.43
I am bonded to this brand	.28
This brand sets the valuation standard for other brands	.35
The products of this brand promote a certain way of living	.40
My familiarity with this brand is very high	.15
This brand has a strong cultural meaning	.40
The products of this brand are a part of national treasure	.43
I have an absolutely clear imagination of this brand	.34
This brand represents honesty and truthfulness	.43
This brand is highly known in the society	.33
This brand has a strong brand identity	.33
If someone praises this brand, to me, it is a personal compliment	.29
This brand is very unique compared to other brands	.37
This brand has a very good reputation	.35

As Table 49 shows, all indicators significantly correlated with the ‘global item’ statement as they exhibited Spearman’s rank correlation coefficient values ranging from .15 to .43, thus, all indicators were included in this study (Taheri et al. 2014a; Wiedmann et al. 2011a).

5.5.5 Nomological validity

Nomological validity represents an additional validity check and, essentially, flags for further analysis of theoretical constructs that behave differently than the literature suggests they should (Henseler et al. 2009). Nomological validity results further supported the appropriateness of including the formative brand heritage construct in this study as its statistical relationships with *communitas*, satisfaction with management, affective commitment and volunteer work engagement were significant (see Figure 15), and in accordance with the hypothesised relationship suggested in the extant literature (Rose et al. 2016; Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Consequently, the brand heritage construct performed as expected within the nomological network in this research.

5.6 Part C: Analysis of the Higher-Order Model

Having examined convergent validity, Cronbach's alpha, and AVE values for all reflective constructs (dedication, vigour, absorption, usefulness, efficiency, affect and dynamism) results were determined as falling within required levels with regard to composite reliability, indicator reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. Consequently, the higher-order structural model is now assessed through determining its coefficients (R^2).

This research adopted the commonly applied, repeated measures approach for estimating the higher-order structure model (hierarchical component model (HCM)) through PLS (Becker et al. 2012; Wetzels et al. 2009). Therefore, all items were assigned to their respective dimensions reflectively, before being assigned to second-order constructs reflectively, meaning the relationships between the higher-order constructs and their dimensions is reflective. Subsequently, the HCM was tested for validity.

Following established convention in evaluating higher-order constructs, R^2 values should be greater than .5 for each dimension, thus indicating a strong relationship between the higher-order construct and its dimensions (i.e., that it explains over 50% of variance around the sample mean) (Hair et al. 2012; Hair et al. 2014). Chin (1998) and Henseler et al. (2009) suggest three levels of significance threshold to guide R^2 interpretation (0.67 substantial, 0.33 moderate, and 0.19 weak) which were used in this research.

Figure 15 below shows the R^2 values of each reflective, HCM dimension. The highest value was .840 for the absorption dimension of work engagement, while the lowest value was .596 for the usefulness dimension of brand image. Thus, all values are significant suggesting a high level of variance is explained by the dimensions of the HCM.

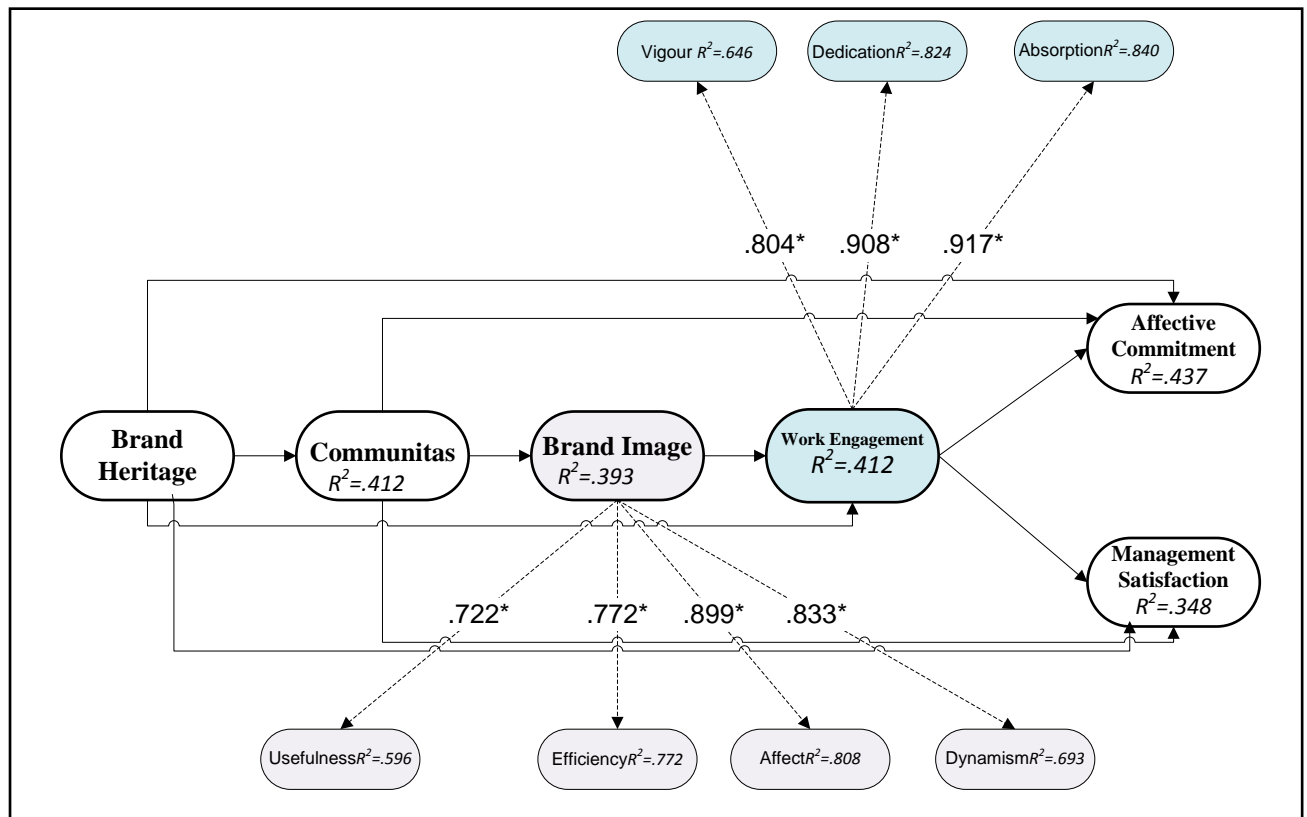


Figure 15: Repeated measures approach

Note: *p < 0.05; N.B. (2-tailed)

5.6.1 Structural Model

The structural model results convey the extent the theory put forward (i.e., the structural model itself) is supported by the empirical data gathered in this research. Having ensured the HOC element of the structural model possessed appropriate statistical characteristics and that each component dimension exhibited explanatory power over its variance, the structural model as a whole was assessed through coefficient of determinations (R^2), effect size (f^2), and the predictive relevance of the model (Q^2). These results are now presented.

5.6.2 Coefficient of determination (R^2)

R^2 values denote the coefficient of determination, and are a central indicator of the predictive capabilities of the structural model (Hair et al. 2014). The value is calculated through squaring the correlation between endogenous constructs predicted, and empirically demonstrable values, resulting in indications of the amount of variance in the

endogenous constructs that is explained by the exogenous constructs (Hair et al. 2014). Establishing cut-off thresholds for denoting adequate R^2 values can be challenging, and should thus be interpreted based on the context of the investigation and specificities of the field. The R^2 values for the structural model are shown in Figure 15.

The R^2 values for the structural model can vary from 0-1; higher levels denote increased predictive accuracy levels (Hair et al. 2010; Hair et al. 2014). According to Chin (1998) and Henseler et al. (2009) R^2 values of .67, .33, and .19 are substantial, moderate, and weak respectively. Consequently, R^2 values ranged from .348 (management satisfaction) to .437 (affective commitment), indicating moderate levels of predictive accuracy for all constructs in the structural model.

Regarding the formative brand heritage construct, Chin (2010 p. 665) argues that the formative model should have a higher R^2 because “PLS based formative indicators are inwards directed to maximize the structural portion of the model”. Despite this, when the construct was assessed assuming brand heritage as being reflective, the value of R^2 were as low as those in the original formative conceptualisation, indicating the formative model (brand heritage) was appropriate to include, and allow for accurate measurement of communitas, brand image, engagement, management satisfaction, and affective commitment.

5.6.3 Effect size (f^2)

Measurements of effect size (f^2) are useful in determining the equity of effect the exogenous constructs have toward the endogenous construct, meaning f^2 can indicate whether R^2 values are attributable to some exogenous constructs, more so than others. This approach is useful for identifying both weak relationships, as well as particularly dominant ones, potentially offering useful implications for theory (Hair et al. 2010; Hair et al. 2014). The measurement process is two-fold; first the f^2 is calculated including various exogenous variables, and the second time, without a specific exogenous variable. The difference between the two measurements produces the effect size statistic and allows it to be attributed to a construct (Hair et al. 2014a). Hair et al. (2014a) and Cohen (1988) note .002 as small, .15, medium, and .35 results as indicative of large effects being exhibited by the exogenous variable. The f^2 values for all structural model paths range from .113 to .700, demonstrating large effect, and are shown in Table 50 below.

5.6.4 Analysis of direct effects

Towards assessing the direct effects manifesting within the model through PLS-SEM, path coefficients (i.e., the hypothesised construct relationship estimates) were established. The resulting path coefficient values indicate the strength of the relationships between constructs, ranging from -1 to + 1, with results closer to either extreme representing strong relationships, either negative, or positive respectively (Hair et al. 2014). Values falling very close to 0 suggest a highly non-significant relationship being exhibited (Chin 2010; Hair et al. 2014). The path coefficients results ranged from .168 (communitas' relationship to affective commitment) to .642 (brand heritage's relationship to communitas), indicating varying degrees of significance amongst the path coefficients. Hair et al. (2014) note that to establish a genuine understanding of the significance of path coefficients requires evaluation of its standard error derived through the previously explained bootstrapping approach (see section 5.3.4). The resultant empirically produced *t*-values can then be compared with theoretically derived critical values to establish their significance, in keeping with common practice in this field, critical values of 1.96 meaning a significance value threshold of 5% were adopted (Chin 2010; Hair et al. 2014). Consequently, Table 50 below presents the *t*-values for all direct paths ranging from 4.369 to 25.620, meaning all empirical *t*-values were above the theoretical *t*-value of 1.96 with a 5% probability error, thus all relationships were shown to be significant.

Table 50: Estimates of Direct Paths.

Path	Path coefficient	<i>t</i> -values	Effect size (f^2)
BH -> Affective Com	0.226	7.013	.149
BH -> Communitas	0.642	25.345	.700
BH -> Management Sat	0.209	6.577	.135
BH -> WorkEng	0.316	9.299	.180
BI -> WorkEng	0.375	11.487	.113
Communitas -> Affective Com	0.168	4.369	.123
Communitas -> BI	0.627	25.620	.646
Communitas -> Management Sat	0.236	5.935	.140
WorkEng -> Affective Com	0.364	11.172	.123
WorkEng -> Management Sat	0.234	6.690	.144

Notes: *t*-values for the item loadings to two-tailed test: $t > 1.96$ at $p < .05$, $t > 2.57$ at $p < .01$, $t > 3.29$ at $p < .001$.

5.6.5 Predictive relevance of the model: Q^2

Towards assessing the predictive relevance of the model, the Stone-Geisser Q^2 value was measured (Hair et al. 2014). The Q^2 value is obtained through the blindfolding procedure. The blindfolding process involved omission of one case at a time and re-estimation of the model parameters based on the remaining cases. Subsequently, the removed case values are predicted on the basis of the estimated parameters of the remaining cases (Chin 1998; Geisser 1974; Hair et al. 2014a; Hair et al. 2014b). The blindfolding procedure allows researchers to include all observations in predictions, and avoids having to delete entire observations for each blindfolding round (Hair et al. 2014). The Q^2 value of five dependent variables were positive (Communitas $Q^2 = .410$; Brand image $Q^2 = .391$; Work Engagement $Q^2 = .409$; Management Satisfaction $Q^2 = .346$; and Affective Commitment $Q^2 = .435$). As Q^2 values higher than 0 indicate predictive relevance within the model, and results below 0 suggest a lack of predictive relevance, it can be assumed that the dependent variables can be predicted by the independent variables in this model.

5.6.6 Post-hoc analysis of the indirect effects

Zhao et al. (2010) suggest that “the one and only requirement to demonstrate mediation is a significant indirect effect ...” This perspective is also supported by other researchers (Cheong and MacKinnon 2012; Little et al. 2007; Taheri et al. 2015). Indirect effects can be described as a relationship between two constructs, routed via additional construct(s); investigating potential mediation is important in research areas where theoretical understanding is in the early stages of development, as it may present useful future research avenues and can unearth behaviours exhibited by the constructs not previously considered (Hair et al. 2014). Consequently, the findings suggest the potential existence of mediating relationships between three constructs in the model. Following a procedure used by Chin (2010), Lee et al. (2016), and Fraj et al. (2015) mediating effects were calculated (see Table 51). Through a bootstrap analysis, the indirect effects of an independent construct on a dependent construct occur through a mediating variable, using a confidence interval (CI). Consequently, if the direct effect between two constructs’ relationships is significant, the results are indicative of partial mediation. However, if the direct effect between two respective constructs is not significant, the findings show full

mediation (Lee et al. 2016). Finally, the relative size of mediating effects was captured. Towards estimating the magnitude of the indirect effect, the variance accounted for (VAF) value was assessed, which shows the ratio of the indirect effect to the total effect (Hair et al. 2014; Riley et al. 2015). VAF scores ranging from 20% to 100% indicate a good effect, and scores below 20% indicate no effect (Table 51).

Table 51: Estimates of Indirect Paths

Relationship	Total effect	t-values	Indirect effect path	Indirect effect	t-values	Lower CI	Upper CI	VAF
BH → Affective Commitment	.503	20.125	BH → Communitas → Affective Commitment	.277	10.055	.226	.377	45%
BH → Management Sat	.470	16.938	BH → Communitas → Management Sat	.261	9.949	.213	.313	45%
BH → Work Engagement	.466	14.768	BH → Communitas → Work Engagement	0.151	8.033	.111	.184	32%

Notes: t-values for the item loadings to two-tailed test: $t > 1.96$ at $p < .05$, $t > 2.57$ at $p < .01$, $t > 3.29$ at $p < .001$; 95% confidence intervals (CI) obtained from bootstrapping

Consequently, three additional hypotheses, derived from post-hoc analysis presented in Table 51 were included in the research, these were:

- H11: Brand heritage has an indirect relationship affective commitment, mediated by communitas
- H12: Brand heritage has an indirect relationship with satisfaction with management, mediated by communitas
- H13: Brand heritage has an indirect relationship with volunteer work engagement, mediated by communitas.

5.7 Conclusion and Summary of the Chapter

This chapter discussed the main quantitative findings and presented the conceptual model derived from the relevant literature pertaining to brand heritage, communitas, brand image, engagement, affective commitment, and satisfaction with management presented in chapter 3. The resultant hypotheses comprising the research model were shown to be

supported by the empirical data. The main findings of the quantitative analyses conducted are summarised below:

- Analysis of the descriptive statistics explored the characteristics of the data, showing it to be generally in-line with broader volunteer oriented understanding. Results regarding age concurred with extant literature suggesting older people are more likely to volunteer. Regarding gender, the analysis showed a majority of respondents to be male; again, this result was supported by broader research and was expected given the historically male composition of the Scouts. Education was analysed, and results showed respondents to be generally well-educated, again, echoing broader volunteer literature which suggest more highly educated people are more likely to volunteer. Finally, analysis of religion showed that the Scout volunteers were predominantly Christian. Religious minorities constitute only a small number of volunteers but, again, this is in-line with expectations, and can be attributed to the low level of religious heterogeneity in Scotland, where the sample was sourced, as well as the historical association between the Scouts and Christianity.
- PLS-SEM analysis of the hypothesised relationships (H1-H10) found strong empirical support thus suggesting the model is appropriate and brand heritage can, indeed, play an important role in engaging, retaining, and recruiting volunteers within the non-profit sector. Post-hoc analysis supported the inclusion of the additional three hypotheses which were supported by the data:
 - H11: Brand heritage has an indirect relationship affective commitment, mediated by *communitas*.
 - H12: Brand heritage has an indirect relationship with satisfaction with management, mediated by *communitas*.
 - H13: Brand heritage has an indirect relationship with volunteer work engagement, mediated by *communitas*.
- The inclusion, justification, and validation of a formative construct (brand heritage), represents a methodological contribution. The use of formative, as opposed to reflective measures remains limited in this area of research.

To derive further meaning from the principal, quantitative results, and in following the sequential mixed method design employed in this research, the next chapter presents the findings from the qualitative elements of this research.

Chapter 6 Qualitative Phase II: Findings derived from the interviews

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the qualitative phase of this research, collected following the procedures presented in section 4.7, towards meeting the set aims and objectives of this research. The findings presented derive from semi-structured interviews, analysed through template analysis (King 2012). Consequently, good practice dictates the findings are structured around the six ‘priori’ codes that form the template, identified in the literature review (section 3.14), with the inclusion of an additional ‘posteriori’ code: heritage custodianship, which emerged through the empirical analysis (Butler et al. 2013). Throughout the presentation of findings, the true identities of respondents have been anonymised, but are denoted numerically as presented in Table 33.

6.2 Brand Heritage

Brand heritage was found to extensively permeate the Scouts. Much of the organisation’s heritage was noted to stem organically from the story and work of its founder, Robert Baden-Powell as noted by respondent 15 who commented: “A lot of our heritage stems from what I think is the genuine wisdom of Baden Powell, many of his teachings shape the organisation today, and we don’t shy away from telling people about that”.

The findings further suggested management should exert caution in expanding the role of brand heritage to ensure the balance of the organisation’s appeal to both young Scout recruits new to the organisation, and older volunteers is maintained, evidenced by comments from respondent 12, “need to keep working at moving Scouts forward whilst adhering to our traditions and values”. The inherent heritage of the Scouts is evidenced by respondent 2 who notes “it’s important, the history and reputation of the Scouts definitely helps attract new volunteers, especially those of a non-Scouting background”, thus, also highlighting the potential benefits derivable from the Scouts brand heritage offering regarding recruitment and retention of volunteers. Supporting this notion, respondent 3 commented when asked about reasons for joining the organisation that it was “belief in the core value” that attracted him.

The value of brand heritage as an inherent asset is also shown through respondent 6 remarking that “it’s what makes us distinctive from just another youth club”. This capacity for distinctiveness gives the Scouts a significant advantage in differentiating

itself from other youth focused organisations, which compete for resources (both volunteer, and financial). Evidence also supported the notion that the extensive track record and longevity of the Scouts, contributed to attracting and retaining volunteers. Respondent 5 commented: “We’ve been around for so long, so yes, I think that helps encourage volunteers to commit to the organisation”. Furthermore, the Scouts’ positive track record, and historical longevity was noted by respondent 11 commenting “volunteers are reassured by the heritage associated with the Scouts”.

The continuing relevance of heritage to the Scouts was captured by respondent 4 saying “it’s more relevant than ever”. This view validates the Scouts’ efforts to maintain an attractive image to young people, complementary to their heritage, which was praised by respondent 6: “Having Bear as our chief Scout was an inspired choice to engage with the youngsters”. The challenges of pleasing all volunteers and potential pitfalls from adjusting the heritage and ethos of the organisation was also noted by respondent 10, “I agreed with its philosophy when I got involved. I think it has lost its way now”.

6.3 Communitas

Communitas came through strongly in the interviews. Respondents often cited feelings of intense bonding, and camaraderie as things that attracted them to the Scouts, encouraging them to sustain their volunteering activity. Remarking about their emotions while at a large scale Scout Jamborette, respondent 9 described how: “When you look down on the camp from the hilltop, see the patrol tents, the smoke rising from the campfires, the flags, you get a real feeling of being part of something special”.

In further reference to the Jamborette, respondent 3 commented “the traditional ceremonies definitely contribute to creating a distinctive, uniquely Scouting feel”. Further evidence of the community spirit within the Scouts is described by respondent 11 noting: “Scouting has become my extended family in such a short time. Having volunteered in other sectors I can honestly say Scouting is the most friendly”.

Thus, a spirit of communitas does appear to be being fostered within the Scouts. Furthermore, it appears that feelings of communitas can be stimulated through the use of traditional ceremonies, camping styles, and the holding of large scale camps. The activities the volunteers are expected to complete within the camp further stimulate communitas: “Volunteers build the camps, eat together, we wash up together, and take

everything down as a team” (Respondent 2). These activities constitute practical management techniques that are successfully encouraging *communitas* rich experiences, resulting in there being “a real camaraderie and pride in what we do” (Respondent 6).

Away from Scout camp, *communitas* was also evident in the day to day activities of Scout volunteers; respondent 10 noted: “I also enjoy the social side with the leaders, and when I moved town it allowed me to meet new people away from work”. The promotion of *communitas* experiences was found to be inherent in the recruitment activities of the Scouts: “I had an idea before I started that the Scouts were a friendly, community-focused organisation, and from what I read on their website I became quite inspired to become a part of these experiences” (Respondent 14).

Scout management demonstrated awareness of the need to maintain projection of such images, respondent 13 commented: “We wear our kilts and neckies on trips abroad; people know who we are, that we are approachable, and it reminds us that we are acting as ambassadors for the Scouts”. The establishment of such protocols further helps to foster feelings of *communitas* amongst the Scouts and volunteers, but also promotes the potential for *communitas*-rich experiences to external audiences of prospective volunteers. Furthermore, the wearing of traditionally inspired uniforms and the incorporation of traditional camping techniques and flag ceremonies demonstrates how elements of the Scouts heritage can stimulate positive, *communitas* notions amongst its volunteers.

6.4 Brand Image

The brand image of the Scouts was noted to be generally positively viewed. The higher-order brand image conceptualisation comprises of usefulness, efficiency, affect, and dynamism components; evidence was found to support each of these elements. One of the overall benefits of maintaining and managing the Scouts brand image effectively appeared to be its influence on maintaining volunteer commitment to the organisation. This is evidenced by respondent 3 commenting, “If something happened to negatively affect the Scouts external image, yeah, I would stick it out for a bit... but I might have to consider my volunteering activities with the Scouts if it began to negatively affect my reputation at work. So yes, the brand image is very important.”

Thus, respondent 3 emphasises the potential influence brand image can exert upon volunteers, and highlights the importance of its careful management. Evidence supporting the dimensions of brand image are now presented.

6.4.1 *Usefulness*

The usefulness of the Scouts was found to be positively received by Scout volunteers. For example, respondent 2 observed “the Scouts performs a quite invaluable role, for some communities it really does make a difference to the young people”. This was further emphasised by respondent 2 who continued: “We’ve got involved in outreach projects with young offenders, and do some local work for the environment too”. These comments suggest the Scouts are perceived as being valuable to wider society. Conversely, there is some criticism that the Scouts should make more of this aspect of their organisation, as respondent 5 noted: “I would like to see more active and visible interaction with the community”. Nevertheless, it appears the Scouts are generally perceived as being useful by their volunteers.

6.4.2 *Efficiency*

In relation to the perceived efficiency of the Scouts, derived through its brand image, the semi-structured interviews with volunteers indicated this perception was strong. For example, respondent 8 highlighted “It’s definitely nice, when you tell people you volunteer for the Scouts, and they’ve got a positive idea of the organisation in their heads”. Further evidence supporting the Scouts having a positive brand image of efficiency was captured in comments by respondent 3, “I think most people can see that we offer something a bit unique here, the fun and adventure on offer is the best out there”. Respondent 3’s comments suggest consumption of the perception that the Scouts offer an experience that is superior compared to competition, this represents a particularly valuable brand image to project as it can both maintain recruitment levels of young Scouts, while also aiding in recruitment of volunteers.

Further evidence supported elements of the efficiency dimension of brand image. Specifically, respondents noted they perceived the Scouts as being well managed. Respondent 5 commented: “I think the terminology we use in the Scouts helps lend some gravitas to its management, District Commissioner, Chief Commissioner and so on, these make you believe it’s well-managed, and it is”. Thus, the nomenclature used within the

Scouts seems to contribute to perceptions of efficient management. These perceptions were further supported by respondent 1's observation that "they make the odd mistake, but most volunteers here are quite happy with the way things are run".

The importance of ensuring perceived efficiency in the Scouts was demonstrated in comments by respondent 9 who commented "the Scouts have to be careful to avoid negative publicity, the tabloid media are quick to sensationalise stories relating to us". Respondent 9's comments highlight previous image problems the Scouts have had, and promote the importance that the Scouts maintain control over their brand image, continuing to promote ideas of efficiency, responsibility, and competency.

Additional insight was gained on how the brand image of the Scouts can communicate images of efficient management, for example by promoting Scout membership through wearing distinctive uniforms on trips abroad "When we take Scouts abroad, they are acting as ambassadors, we expect both them, and the volunteers to behave accordingly, I think that looks good to people out-with Scouting" (respondent 3). The decision to insist uniform is worn results in increased awareness of the activities undertaken by the Scouts. Furthermore, the traditional uniform (kilts and Scout shirts) highlights the Scottish roots of these Scout groups and suggests to the public that the Scout members are proud of what they do, which may indicate further efficiency competencies inherent in the brand image.

6.4.3 *Affect*

The affect dimension of brand image was identifiable within the data. For example, respondent 12 commented "The togetherness, and team spirit is definitely picked up and pushed in our marketing literature". Respondent 12 further emphasised this point by commenting on the high levels of perceived friendliness of the organisation: "I know that if I move to a new area for work, through Scouts I've got an instant friends group". The notion that the Scouts produces an image that conveys ideas of generosity and notions of warmth was less prevalent, although respondent 13 did liken the Scouts to a close-knit family group: "We're all part of the Scouting family, there'll be disagreements now and again but we generally get along". Such a notion of family indicates that respondents perceive the Scouts as a warm, comforting, welcoming organisation.

6.4.4 *Dynamism*

The dynamism component of brand image was evidenced strongly within the data. Despite its historical roots, and an increase in the number of youth focused organisations and available activities for them to undertake, the Scouts have cultivated a dynamic brand image. This is shown through comments made by respondent 8 “We have a pretty good external reputation these days, the decision to appoint Bear [Grylls] was an inspired choice”. Respondent 8’s comments relate to the appointment of celebrity outdoor survival specialist Bear Grylls as Chief Scout. Through this, the Scouts have benefitted from Bear’s modern, positive image. Furthermore, Bear has helped raise the media profile of the Scouts through various media interventions and contributed to the organisation’s expansion (Scout Association 2015). Further evidence of dynamism within the Scouts brand image is found in comments made by respondent 1 in reference to retaining Scouts in the older age groups of its membership, “we lose a lot of kids around the ages of 16-17, there’s exams, relationships, perhaps ‘cooler’ things to be doing, but I think that’s changing, a lot of these kids now want to become young leaders”. When questioned further on what is causing this changing trend he continued “we’ve become much more youth-led than before, this has helped us broaden our appeal through offering a more relevant programme”. Respondent 1’s comments emphasise the positive effect youth leadership has had on the Scouts, and suggest this has allowed them to enhance the dynamic elements of their brand image. The essence of respondent 1’s comments is supported by comments from respondent 4, who also identifies dynamic aspects of the Scouts brand image: “The idea of the knee high socks, and round hat type Scouting is outdated, it’s all about developing leaders, we’re a very relevant, modern organisation now, we have to be”. Here respondent 4 conveys the idea that the image of the Scouts has changed over time, to remain attractive to young people as well as prospective volunteers. Thus, it is evident the Scouts are succeeding in harnessing their history and heritage, while also managing to remain relevant and perceptively modern to its audiences.

6.5 Volunteer Work Engagement

Volunteer work engagement is a higher-order conceptualisation comprising of vigour, absorption, and dedication. The semi-structured interviews broadly supported the notion

that the Scouts possess high levels of volunteer work engagement, and characteristics of each lower-order component were identifiable. The results also highlighted there is a perception some volunteers are more deeply engaged than others.

6.5.1 Vigour

The prevalence of vigour is supported by respondent 6 “a lot of energy goes into making sure the Scouts have the best time possible. At camp, I’m up at the crack of dawn, and I don’t stop for the whole day”. Here respondent 6 conveys the high energy approach they apply to their volunteer work. Vigour was again identifiable amongst a younger respondent (15) who noted he would volunteer “everyday if I could”. Again, this suggests volunteers possessing a vigorous attitude towards their volunteer work with the Scouts.

6.5.2 Absorption

The qualitative phase of the research also confirmed that the Scout volunteers were generally deeply engaged in their roles, but suggested Scout management should be cautious not to place too large a burden on volunteers, and in particular to avoid overloading them with administrative duties preventing them from interacting with young people. Respondent 4 notes “I put more effort into volunteering than I do my day job”, thus indicating high levels of absorption. The idea of absorption is further evidenced by respondent 7 revealing “I do it because I love the organisation, so of course I put 110% into it”. Here, respondent 7’s comments are representative of a widely held passion for the Scouts that is maintained amongst its volunteers. This enthusiasm seems to help stimulate high levels of absorption. Especially during largescale events such as the Jamborette, volunteers can commit vast amounts of time, and energy to their roles. For example, respondent 8 commented “I came here knowing I’d have to work hard, I don’t want to just be sitting around, I enjoy keeping busy!” Thus, Scout volunteers exhibited high levels of absorption in conducting their volunteer duties.

6.5.3 Dedication

Dedication, another element of volunteer work engagement is also evident through respondent 10 noting he gives up a significant amount of time each week for the Scouts: “I also do a shed-load of admin preparing for our larger trips, as well as being expected to give up a lot of weekends for training, I have to be dedicated to keep doing that”.

Respondent 10's continuation of voluntary activity, despite the perceived less interesting tasks was a typical view held by most Scout volunteer interviewed. Characteristics of dedication were also discernible in respondent 4, who noted "I'm always going on about my Scout group, I think when you put so much into something, and you see the difference it makes to the kids, you do have a little bit of pride about that". Respondents 4's emphasis that they take pride in the volunteer work they undertake represents a strong indicator they will be dedicated to the organisation.

Nevertheless, there was also evidence to support that some volunteers are more highly engaged than others. This was evident through the identification of a 'passenger' phenomenon by some respondents, these were noted as being people who "don't seem to actually contribute much" (Respondent 5). Interestingly, it seemed passengers were more of a concerning issue at the Jamborette camp; consequently, this could be attributable to bad event management, rather than a laziness on the part of volunteers. Overall, "most of the volunteers are here because they love the organisation, they're usually highly motivated" (Respondent 5). Consequently, although most evidence suggests Scout volunteers possess high levels of dedication, management should be vigilant against those who are happy to allow others to contribute more on their behalf.

6.6 Satisfaction with Management

Volunteers reported a high level of satisfaction with the way the Scouts are managed, and it seemed there was an acceptance that management, who are often volunteers themselves, are working hard, and with good intentions. For example, respondent 1 commented "they make the odd mistake, but most volunteers here are quite happy with the way things are run". There was also evidence that the training and support provided by Scout management is appropriate and effective as captured in the comments of respondent 11 "Fantastic assistance and help on offer and training plan modules beneficial to the organisation - well worth attending - never felt a waste of my time as we often say". However, these views which suggest Scout volunteers are satisfied with their management are challenged by a perception of favouritism as conveyed by respondent 7 "Sometimes it's a bit more about who you know, rather than what you can give to Scouting, this means some people can feel a little marginalised". This notion is supported by respondent 10 who also suggested management should "stop the same people being

selected for the various events time and time again”. It seems that one of the challenges for management, perhaps exacerbated by the traditions and culture that helps constitute its powerful brand heritage, might be inadvertent promotion of ideas of exclusivity, particularly with regard to the roles volunteers can expect to have the opportunity to fulfil.

6.7 Affective Commitment

The semi-structured interviews showed that the volunteers interviewed held a strong level of affective commitment towards the Scouts. Indeed, even amongst respondents who identified aspects of their volunteering experience they found stressful, and challenging, affective commitment to the organisation remained strong; respondent 7 commented “Everyone has bad days, times when the kids just won’t play ball, but this organisation means a hell of a lot to me and it would take a lot more than that to put me off it”. The notion that volunteers with the Scouts possess a deep rooted commitment to the organisation is further demonstrated through respondent 13’s commenting “it’s a hobby not a chore for me, I’ll volunteer here as long as possible”.

Regarding stimulators of affective commitment, several respondents identified the heritage, and history of the organisation as contributing to strengthening their commitment to it: “Yes, I think the history and heritage of the organisation does increase my commitment to it, people before me have given up their time for the Scouts, I’ve no excuse not to do the same” (Respondent 2).

Thus, respondent 2 highlights the wide ranging benefits of brand heritage that can potentially be harnessed. Echoing this sentiment, respondent 7 commented “I feel a part of something much bigger, a bigger story. In that sense the heritage and togetherness does strengthen determination to continue volunteering here”. Given this, the Scouts seem capable of stimulating deep levels of affective commitment amongst their volunteers, through explicating the brand heritage as strongly as possible.

A result of the high affective commitment levels amongst Scout volunteers appears to be the longevity of service volunteers achieve, and aspire to. Respondent 6 commented “having done it for over 35 years, I have seen the benefits”. This notion is supported by respondent 5’s proclamation that “I’ve been a lifelong member of my unit. Scouting is very much part of my life”.

The evidence broadly supports the idea that Scout volunteers exhibit strong affective commitment, and also highlights the relationship between the Scouts history, and brand heritage, and the subsequent attitudes its volunteers hold towards it.

6.8 Heritage Custodianship

An additional theme to emerge empirically from the semi-structured interviews was that of heritage custodianship. Heritage custodianship relates to the ways brand heritage can be cultivated, and managed by an organisation. Interviewees noted both the importance of heritage custodianship but, also, offered suggestions for possible custodianship approaches a voluntary organisation such as the Scouts could undertake.

Identifying the importance of safeguarding heritage for future generations, respondent 6 commented “It’s important to take steps to preserve the history, and heritage I guess, for future generations to learn about and use”. Here respondent 6 demonstrates the perceived importance held amongst many Scout volunteers of protecting the Scouts heritage for potential future use. Respondent 6’s beliefs are supported by respondent 15 who also notes “absolutely a duty for the Scouts to safeguard its heritage”. With broad consensus being held for safeguarding the Scouts heritage, some respondents indicated practical steps that Scout management could embrace. For example, respondent 9 suggested efforts be made to develop an accessible archive “The expansion of a collection of artefacts supported with information plaques would definitely be of interest to most volunteers”. These tangible artefacts could help present the story of the organisation, whilst also developing and growing as its story lengthens.

Intangible heritage, manifesting as the events, activities and skills that constitute the Scout programme were also noted as being important aspects of the organisation’s heritage. Participants also suggested approaches for the management of the intangible. The Blair Atholl Jamborette, which promotes a particularly traditional style of camping, was described as “iconic of Scottish Scouting. Any changes should be widely consulted on” (Respondent 10). The idea of custodianship was supported by respondent 5 who suggested “we need to make sure the more traditional activities we undertake such as wood craft, are safeguarded, perhaps we should protect these skills through promoting them more heavily”. Thus, respondent 5 is calling for the profile of Scouting’s most traditional skills to be given enhanced prominence in the Scouts programme.

Overall, heritage custodianship emerged as a widely held concern for the protection of the unique heritage possessed by the Scouts but, also, as a series of custodianship measures that management could adopt as an aid in doing so.

6.9 Conclusion

This section has presented the qualitative findings of phase II of the research. General support was found for the theoretical model (see Figure 15), furthermore, a richer understanding of its constituent elements was developed from the qualitative semi-structured interviews. This was achieved through using a template analysis approach that was structured around the empirically validated theoretical model (Figure 15). Consequently, understanding of the template components of brand heritage, *communitas*, brand image, volunteer work engagement, satisfaction with management and affective commitment was expanded. The decision to follow a template analysis approach was partly guided by a provision within template analysis for allowing new themes to emerge empirically from the data, but also through its position as a formalised approach for qualitative analysis (King 2012). The newly identified theme was labelled ‘heritage custodianship’, as it related to the specific measures a voluntary organisation can take to safeguard, maintain, and promote their heritage for current and future generations of Scout volunteers. Thus, the decision to adopt a template analysis approach was vindicated. While heritage custodianship was not empirically validated and is not included in the theoretical model, its identification has both managerial and further research implications. The results of both phases of the empirical analysis and presentation of findings will now be discussed in relation to the theoretical underpinnings of the research.

Chapter 7 Discussion

7.1 Introduction

The preceding chapters have articulated the aim and objectives of this research, presented the specificities of the non-profit sector pertinent to this study, and reviewed the extant academic literature to develop a theoretical model that expands understanding of brand heritage, *communitas*, brand image, work engagement, affective commitment and volunteer satisfaction with management (see chapters 1, 2, and 3). Chapter 4 explained the mixed methods research methodology employed before chapters 5 and 6 presented the quantitative, and qualitative results and findings respectively. This chapter now reflects upon the results from both empirical sections of the research in relation to current theoretical understanding, and previous studies. Following Creswell (2009) and Teddlie and Tashakkori's (2009) recommendation, the theoretical model developed from the literature to meet the aim and objectives of this research guided both the quantitative and qualitative methodological investigation, and is called upon, again, to structure the discussion. The theoretical model found strong empirical support, in particular the results highlight brand heritage can be utilised in the management of volunteers, to foster greater camaraderie, brand image, engagement, affective commitment and satisfaction. There was empirical support for both direct and indirect relationships, which offers useful insight into the intricacies of the model. Consequently, the five research objectives formulated to meet the research aim presented in chapter 1 are used to structure the discussion, incorporating the hypotheses presented in chapter 3 and a further three hypotheses developed and supported through post-hoc analysis (see section 5.6.6). Finally, the newly identified theme of heritage custodianship (see section 6.8) which was identified *posteriori* and emerged from the qualitative empirical data is discussed, and the revised, empirically supported theoretical model is presented.

7.2 Presentation of Discussion

The following discussion is structured around the research objectives, and relates the quantitative and qualitative findings from the previous chapter to the pertinent literature considered in chapter 3, whilst demonstrating the fulfilment of all five research objectives.

7.3 Objective 1: Underpinned by the volunteer process model, identify antecedents, experiences, and consequences of volunteering in the context of Scouting in Scotland

Objective 1 was met through ascertaining that brand heritage, *communitas*, brand image, engagement, affective commitment, and volunteer satisfaction with management were occurring in the non-profit sector through a combination of quantitative and qualitative techniques, and considering the results in relation to the broader literature. Empirical support for an appropriate discussion is now presented under the appropriate headings.

7.3.1 Quantitative phase

The rationale for the model and its constituent elements (see Figure 4) was justified through the empirical results of the quantitative phase of the research. This can be shown through the mean and standard deviation scores for each survey scale item comprising the constructs brand heritage, *communitas*, brand image, work engagement, affective commitment, and volunteer satisfaction with management. As shown in the survey in Appendix 3, a seven-point Likert scale was used for all items. These are presented in Table 52 below:

Table 52: Brand Heritage Mean and Standard Deviation

	Dimension Label	Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
Brand Heritage	Continuity	1.1 The Scouts are very continuous.	5.80	1.289
	Success Images	1.2 The Scouts are related to images of success.	5.69	1.312
	Bonding	1.3 I am bonded to the Scouts.	5.60	1.561
	Orientation	1.4 The Scouts set the valuation standard for other organisations.	5.62	1.426
	Cultural Meaning	1.5 The experiences of the Scouts promote a certain way of living.	6.03	1.262
	Familiarity	1.6 My familiarity with the Scouts is very high.	6.11	1.315
	Myth	1.7 The Scouts have a strong cultural meaning.	5.94	1.281
	Cultural Value	1.8 The experiences of the Scouts are a part of national treasure.	5.89	1.403
	Imagination	1.9 I have an absolutely clear imagination of the Scouts.	5.61	1.470
	Credibility	1.10 The Scouts represent honesty and truthfulness.	6.29	1.076
	Knowledge	1.11 The Scouts are highly known in society.	6.46	.959
	Identity Value	1.12 The Scouts have a strong brand identity.	6.42	.984
	Identity Meaning	1.13 When someone praises the Scouts, to me, it is a personal compliment.	5.68	1.643
	Differentiation	1.14 The Scouts are very unique compared to other brands.	5.81	1.432
	Prestige	1.15 The Scouts have a very good reputation.	6.36	.936

Table 52 above conveys the mean results for brand heritage responses, indicating the strongest item responses to be for knowledge, while the lowest mean, indicating the least strong dimension was bonding. Regarding standard deviation indicating the concentration of responses for brand heritage items, responses were most widely distributed for the identity meaning dimension, and lowest for the prestige dimension, which also possessed the second strongest mean score. Thus, the mean and standard deviation for the brand heritage items suggest they constitute a pertinent antecedent influence on volunteers. This speaks to previous research measuring brand heritage applying the same measurement scale, demonstrating its usefulness in capturing respondent perceptions of brand heritage (Wiedmann et al. 2011a; 2011b). Brand heritage has also been shown to be an influencer of subsequent behaviour when alternative measurement scales have been applied, for example, Hakala et al. (2011) find brand heritage to be useful across cultures, and similarly, Rose et al. (2016) show brand heritage to be useful in affecting purchase intentions, further supporting the results found in Table 52.

Assessment of the mean and standard deviation responses for *communitas* supported the notion *communitas* can influence volunteer experiences. These are shown in Table 53:

Table 53: Communitas Mean and Standard Deviation

	Dimension Label	Survey Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
Communitas	Camaraderie	3.1 When I volunteer, I feel a sense of camaraderie.	5.73	1.299
	Bonded	3.2 When I volunteer, I feel a bond with my fellow volunteers that I could not experience away from volunteering.	5.17	1.681
	Belonging	3.3 When I volunteer, I feel a sense of belonging with other volunteers.	5.67	1.372
	Harmony	3.4 When I volunteer, I feel a sense of harmony with the other volunteers.	5.31	1.452
	Community	3.5 When I volunteer, I feel a sense of sharing with the people there.	5.68	1.310
	Intimacy	3.6 Volunteering really allows me to get to know my fellow volunteers.	5.55	1.379

As Table 53 shows, mean scores for the *communitas* items ranged from 5.17 (bonded) to 5.73 (camaraderie), on a seven-point Likert scale, indicating *communitas* represents an important volunteer experience. Furthermore, the standard deviation results also indicate that, on average, respondents were in broad agreement when responding to the

communitas questions. These results are supported by communitas investigation utilising the same measurement scale, for example, McGinnis et al. (2008) report means within a similar range, the measurement of the communitas construct was also scrutinised by Taheri et al. (2016) who, after undertaking panel reviews for each item, found the communitas construct to be appropriate, and subsequently identifying its influence in a nightclubbing context.

Similarly, the mean and standard deviation results for brand image presented in Table 54 below also suggest the appropriateness of the concept to volunteer experiences.

Table 54: Brand Image Mean and Standard Deviation

	Dimension Label	Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
Brand Image	Usefulness	2.1 The Scouts are indispensable.	5.26	1.585
	Usefulness	2.2 The Scouts are useful.	6.20	1.011
	Usefulness	2.3 The Scouts are civic minded.	5.97	1.140
	Efficiency	2.4 The Scouts are efficient.	5.41	1.409
	Efficiency	2.5 The Scouts are serious.	5.23	1.458
	Efficiency	2.6 The Scouts are well managed.	5.39	1.432
	Efficiency	2.7 The Scouts provide an excellent service to beneficiaries.	5.69	1.329
	Efficiency	2.8 The Scouts use assets wisely.	4.98	1.481
	Affect	2.9 The Scouts are friendly.	6.10	1.071
	Affect	2.10 The Scouts are generous.	5.83	1.205
	Affect	2.11 The Scouts are warm.	5.92	1.183
	Affect	2.12 The Scouts are engaging.	5.95	1.150
	Dynamism	2.13 The Scouts are modern.	5.72	1.247
	Dynamism	2.14 The Scouts are innovative.	5.75	1.277

Table 54 shows, the mean statistic for brand image responses and standard deviation results for all sub-scales. For the usefulness dimension of brand image, the mean responses ranged from 5.26 – 6.20, while standard deviation results from 1.011 – 1.585. The highest item in the usefulness dimension was item 2.2, suggesting strong support for a perception of usefulness for the Scouts, echoing evidence from the literature (Michel

and Rieunier 2012). The standard deviation results also note a higher concentration of support for item 2.2 compared to other items (1.011). Conversely, the lowest mean for the usefulness dimension was item 5.26, still supporting the notion of the indispensability of the Scouts. The results speak to recent empirical application of the brand image scale by Michaelidou et al. (2015) who note mean average responses for the usefulness dimension of brand image as 5.3, and 4.8 on a seven-point Likert scale across two studies. The standard deviation statistics for the usefulness dimension ranged from 1.011 – 1.585, suggesting slightly more deviation than the 1.01 and 1.06 SD averages reported for all usefulness dimension items in two studies by Michaelidou et al. (2015). Thus, these results suggest a stronger perception of the usefulness element of brand image amongst the Scout's volunteers than demonstrated amongst two large children's welfare charities in previous studies, and contests criticism by Michaelidou et al. (2015) of Michel and Rieunier's (2012) non-profit brand image measurement scale.

The efficiency dimension of brand image also found statistical support, as its mean average ranged from 4.98 – 5.97 with a standard deviation range from 1.329 – 1.481. Past empirical application of the brand image scale items used in this research found the efficiency dimension to have a mean average for all efficiency items of 4.7, and 5.3 in two studies, again suggesting a stronger identification of the efficiency dimension of brand image in the Scouts (Michaelidou et al. 2015). Average standard deviation statistics of 0.77 and 1.16 across all efficiency items for two studies reported by Michaelidou et al. (2015) contrast with standard deviation statistics in this research ranging from 1.329 - 1.481 for the efficiency brand image dimension; accordingly, suggesting a slightly lower congruence of responses within the sample used in this research.

The affect dimension of brand image is found to have particularly strong empirical support, highlighting the emotional aspect of volunteering (Musick and Wilson 2008). Response means ranged from 5.83 – 6.10, and intimate support for Michaelidou et al.'s (2015) findings in two studies which showed the affect dimension holds a higher mean average result than the usefulness, efficiency and dynamism dimensions. The same study also reports a standard deviation average statistic across two data collection exercises of 0.95 and 1.2 for the affect dimension, suggesting a marginally higher concentration in

responses for the affect dimension than found in this research which shows standard deviation ranging from 1.150 - 1.205.

The dynamism dimension of brand image was found to have means of 5.72 and 5.75, demonstrating both items elicited generally positive responses and volunteers perceived a strong level of modernity, and innovativeness in the Scouts. Prior empirical research reported lower average mean scores of 4.2 and 4.4 for two studies of non-profit charities by Michaelidou et al. (2015), although the discrepancy could be attributable to contextual factors as data were drawn from two children's welfare charities and differ considerably in their core offerings to the Scouts. The average standard deviation results presented by Michaelidou et al. (2015) for the dynamism dimension of brand image were 0.93 for study 1, and 1.07 for study 2, suggesting less variation of the mean on average than in this study.

Thus, the brand image mean and standard deviation results in this study on the Scouts suggested it to be an appropriate and useful construct in relation to volunteers. Relating these amalgamated results (Table 54) to the broader literature, brand image has been evidenced by several studies. For example, Michel and Rieunier (2012) use three waves of data collection to ascertain non-profit brand image and establish an accurate measurement tool. Brand image in the non-profit sector has also been identified by Michaelidou et al. (2015) as an important concept within non-profit literature, although they raise questions regarding the scales' validity and propose an expanded brand image measurement tool to include additional dimensions of reliability and ethicality. Nevertheless, this study pushes back against Michaelidou et al.'s (2015) suggested expansion, as it finds Michel and Rieunier's (2012) brand image to serve as an acceptably robust measurement tool. Nevertheless, the two mean reporting studies by Michaelidou et al. (2015) apply an expanded version of the brand image measurement tool, therefore, the extent to which the results of those studies can be compared to the results reported in this research are limited to some extent.

The inclusion of volunteer work engagement in the newly developed theoretical model was also vindicated, this is evidenced through the mean and standard deviation scores for each of the constructs items shown in Table 55 below:

Table 55: Volunteer Work Engagement Mean and Standard Deviation

	Dimension Label	Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
Volunteer Work Engagement	Dedication	4.1 I am enthusiastic about my volunteer work.	6.08	1.085
	Dedication	4.2 My volunteer work inspires me.	5.51	1.438
	Dedication	4.3 I am proud of the volunteer work I do.	6.28	1.055
	Absorption	4.4 I am immersed in my work.	5.76	1.326
	Vigour	5.1 When volunteering, I feel strong and vigorous	4.19	1.678
	Vigour	5.2 When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to my volunteer work.	4.19	1.837
	Vigour	5.3 At my volunteer work, I feel bursting with energy.	4.38	1.663
	Absorption	5.4 I get carried away when I am working.	5.10	1.667
	Absorption	5.5 I feel happy when I am working intensely	5.85	1.234

As Table 55 shows, mean scores for volunteer work engagement ranged from 4.19 – 6.28 indicating the volunteer work engagement received a positive response from respondents. Furthermore, the standard deviation results convey an on average, steady degree of homogeneity of response from respondents, again intimating that the concept represents an appropriate component of the theoretical model developed in this research. The mean and standard deviation results are further supported by the literature. For example, amongst new volunteers, Vecina et al. (2012) report a mean average volunteer work engagement of 5.48 for new volunteers, and 5.63 for long-established volunteers and standard deviations of 0.96, 0.97 respectively. More recently, a study conducted by Shantz et al. (2014) reported a mean for all volunteer work engagement responses of 5.58, and a standard deviation of 0.94.

The dedication dimension of volunteer work engagement was particularly strong, as it possessed the highest mean score for the construct (6.28 item 4.3). Research by Vecina et al. (2012) also identified the dedication dimension as having a larger mean average statistic (5.61 and 5.76 respectively), than either the vigour, or absorption dimensions of volunteer work engagement across two waves of data collection, the mean average statistic for dedication in this research was 5.96, although this study reports a slightly higher average standard deviation for dedication of 1.19, compared with 1.05 and 0.99 reported in the two data collection waves by Vecina et al. (2012), thus supporting previous evidence in the literature that volunteers have the propensity to become highly dedicated in fulfilling their duties.

The vigour dimension of volunteer work engagement had the lowest mean average statistic in this research at 4.25, intimating this dimension was less strong amongst Scout volunteers than the dedication or absorption elements. This concurs with prior research by Vecina et al. (2012) which found vigour to be the weakest of the three dimensions in a second wave of data collection amongst veteran Spanish volunteers.

Finally, the mean and standard deviation results for the absorption dimension of volunteer work engagement differ only slightly from previous evidence. For example, Vecina et al. (2012) report mean averages for absorption over two studies as 5.42 for new volunteers and 5.59 for veteran volunteers. This research reports a mean average statistic for absorption of 5.57, suggesting consistency in volunteer absorption levels in relation to prior research.

Overall, the highest scoring volunteer work engagement item was item 4.3, which related to pride levels held by volunteers. The strong evidence of pride amongst volunteer Scouts contributes to support the idea that brand heritage adds to levels of Scout volunteer work engagement as it can generate strong emotional attachments such as pride, amongst consumers towards particular organisations (Hudson 2011; Rose et al. 2016; Wiedmann. et al. 2011a).

Thus, the empirical data from this research, supported by the literature, suggests volunteer work engagement was accurately identified.

Affective commitment is also shown to possess acceptable mean and standard deviation statistics; these are shown in Table 56:

Table 56: Affective Commitment Mean and Standard Deviation**Note: Reverse Scored (RS).**

	Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
Affective Commitment	7.1 RS I do not feel like “part of the family” at this voluntary organisation.	2.29	1.741
	7.2 I would be very happy to spend many years in the Scouts if it were allowed.	5.79	1.491
	7.3 I enjoy discussing the Scouts with people outside it.	5.61	1.485
	7.4 I really feel as if the Scouts problems are my own.	4.00	1.940
	7.5 RS If I was to relocate to another community, I think I could easily become as attached to another voluntary organisation as I am to this one.	4.13	1.973
	7.6 RS I do not feel “emotionally attached” to the Scouts.	2.45	1.633
	7.7 The Scouts have a great deal of personal meaning to me.	5.56	1.577
	7.8 RS I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to the Scouts.	2.29	1.720

Again, Table 56 empirically vindicates the inclusion of affective commitment into the theoretical model. Mean scores for affective commitment ranged from 2.29 – 5.79, however, items 7.1, 7.5, and 7.8 were reverse scored, meaning the low means of 2.29 were not a cause for concern. Furthermore, the standard deviation results for all items indicated an average, general consensus amongst respondents in their feelings towards affective commitment as an outcome of volunteering with the Scouts. Early empirical tests of the seminal affective commitment scale reported a mean average score of 4.63, and standard deviation of 1.33 amongst a sample of 256 private sector and university employees, using seven-point Likert scales (Allen and Meyer 1990). More recent application amongst volunteers reported a mean average statistic for an affective commitment scale based on the original conceptualisation of 4.53, with a standard deviation average of 1.00 (Shantz et al. 2014), thus, the literature supports the empirical findings reported in Table 56.

The highest mean statistic in this research was attributable to item 7.2 (5.79), suggesting respondents to be keen on maintaining voluntary activity with the Scouts for a long period of time. The lowest item mean related to the extent volunteers felt the Scouts’ problems were their own (item 7.4), perhaps attributable in part to the size, and effective management of the Scouts, mitigating the manifestation of serious problems, but also

contributing to impersonalise the burden of any issues regarding the organisation. The second lowest mean related to the ease with which respondents would find their emotional attachment to volunteering with another organisation in the event of them relocating, suggesting the Scout's volunteers would find it difficult to establish the same level of emotional attachment they hold towards the Scouts, in relation to alternative volunteering opportunities. Several factors could be contributing to this, but perhaps the ability of brand heritage to differentiate an organisation from competitors along with its ability to create trust, and the role of *communitas* to deliver intense, near sacred bonding experiences between volunteers are contributing factors (Di Giovine 2011; Wiedmann. et al. 2011a).

Satisfaction with management's inclusion in the theoretical model was empirically justified as a relevant outcome of volunteering with the Scouts, evidenced through its mean and standard deviation statistics presented in Table 57 below:

Table 57: Satisfaction with Management Mean and Standard Deviation

	Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
Satisfaction with Management	6.1 I am satisfied with the interest shown by the Scouts to adjust/fit my motivations, preferences, abilities and capacities with the available volunteer positions.	4.80	1.534
	6.2 I am satisfied with the training provided to improve my volunteer work.	4.90	1.694
	6.3 I am satisfied with the fluidity and frequency of communications between volunteers and professionals.	4.45	1.694
	6.4 I am satisfied with the current mechanisms to solve problems the volunteers might encounter when carrying out their tasks.	4.52	1.699
	6.5 I am satisfied with the recognition of the role of volunteerism in the Scouts.	4.99	1.673
	6.6 I am satisfied with the friendly relations I have within the Scouts.	5.84	1.356
	6.7 I am satisfied with the way the Scouts manage volunteerism.	5.01	1.642
	6.8. I am satisfied with overall management of the Scouts.	4.94	1.650

As Table 57 shows, the mean statistic for satisfaction with management ranged from 4.45 – 5.84 thus indicating a favourable level of satisfaction within the Scouts, and generally positive perceptions being held towards management. Furthermore, the standard deviation results for all satisfaction with management items ranged from 1.356 to 1.699, indicating a good degree of agreement amongst Scout volunteers regarding their feelings towards management and further validating the inclusion of the construct in the

theoretical model this study develops. The empirical support presented in Table 57 is in general agreement with results reported in the broader literature. For example, the satisfaction with management scale used in this research has a reported a mean average response of 5.55 and a standard deviation 0.90 amongst newly recruited volunteers, and a 5.44 mean and 0.89 standard deviation amongst long-established volunteers (Vecina et al. 2012). Subsequent application of the satisfaction with management scale reported a mean response of 5.36 and a standard deviation of 1.23 on a seven-point Likert scale amongst 251 Spanish volunteers (Vecina and Fernando 2013). Thus, the literature reinforces the findings in this research, and supports satisfaction with management as being an appropriate consequence of volunteering.

Finally, the inclusion of the higher-order model components is vindicated empirically. The merits of using higher-order, rather than lower-order models are discussed in section 5.3.6. Assessment of the weightings of the higher-order model components indicated the relevance of each dimension, and therefore justifies their inclusion. Table 58 below illustrates the empirical support for including brand image and volunteer work engagement as a higher-order model:

Table 58: Brand Image and Volunteer Work Engagement Component Coefficients

		Higher-Order Model	Coefficient (R ²)
Brand Image		Usefulness	.596
		Efficiency	.772
		Affect	.808
		Dynamism	.693
Volunteer Work Engagement		Vigour	.646
		Dedication	.824
		Absorption	.840

As Table 58 shows, R² values for brand image's constituent dimensions ranged from .596 - .808, and is thus greater than the recommended minimum level of .6 for each dimension

(i.e., each dimension accounts for over 60% of sample mean variance) suggested as appropriate for research of this nature by Hair et al. (2011). Similarly, volunteer work engagement R^2 values ranged from .646 - .840, again, greater than the recommended minimum level.

Thus, this study expands existing theories by showing that brand image and volunteer work engagement as higher-order conceptualisations, have an effect on affective commitment and volunteer satisfaction with management in the context of scouting in Scotland.

7.3.2 Qualitative phase

The qualitative phase of the empirical research also contributed to supporting the inclusion of the antecedent stage construct (brand heritage), experience stage concepts (communitas, brand image, work engagement), and outcome stage constructs (affective commitment and volunteer satisfaction with management), and also offered an additional posteriori theme of heritage custodianship, which is suggested to contribute to volunteer experiences. For example, in relation to brand heritage, respondents commented on brand heritage and its constituent elements being useful in recruiting volunteers with no prior Scouting experience (see section 6.2). The respondents' comments emphasise the importance of the history and reputation of the Scouts, and suggest it can be harnessed to attract volunteers. Such comments chime with the constituent factors that comprise the formative brand heritage measure which includes themes relevant to reputation such as credibility, continuity, and prestige, as well as items more relevant to history, such as myth and cultural value (Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Furthermore, the identification of brand heritage amongst volunteers is supported by Mort et al. (2007), who suggest it to be an important avenue of research within the non-profit sector.

Empirical support for communitas was also found amongst the qualitative data. Communitas is characterised by intense social bonding (Taheri et al. 2016), respondents' comments attested to the camaraderie and strong social bonds between volunteers in the Scouts and thus intimated communitas to be a relevant part of the theoretical model, for example, respondents note there is a strong togetherness and camaraderie inherent amongst Scout volunteers (see section 6.3). Furthermore, respondents highlighted the

role that the main camp setting, its features (e.g., camp fires and flag raising) as well as the use of traditional styles of tent play in creating a special experience for volunteers conducive to *communitas*. These notions are supported by the broader literature, for example, McGinnis et al. (2012) comment on the ability of *communitas* to generate strong camaraderie, while *communitas*' ability to foster feelings of sacredness, or perceptively special experiences, are well-documented by *communitas* researchers (Arnould and Price 1993; Di Giovine 2011; McGinnis et al. 2008).

Inclusion of brand image was supported through qualitative comments conveying the essence of the concept and highlighting the importance to the Scouts of all four sub-dimensions (usefulness, affect, efficiency, dynamism). Michel and Rieunier (2012) note brand image is a perception of the brand held by individuals, and how positive perceptions can contribute positively to volunteer time contributions, while also leading to increases in donations from members of the public. As negative perceptions of brand image can detract from willingness to support an organisation (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990; Randle et al. 2013), Michel and Rieunier's empirical research contributes to substantiating the identification of brand image in this research. The empirical evidence supported the prevalence of brand image both broadly conceptualised, as well as through its constituent components (see section 6.4). Evidence from the literature suggests strong brand image can be a result of brand heritage (Mort et al. 2007; Wiedmann et al. 2011), and complementarity between the actual, and suggested volunteering experiences on offer (Kylander and Stone 2012). Hence, emphasising the role brand heritage and *communitas* has in generating positive perceptions of brand image.

The usefulness element of brand image was supported by comments highlighting the invaluable role performed by Scout volunteers in communities across Scotland, offering experiences and opportunities that make a positive difference to young people (see section 6.4.1). The brand image literature highlights how the usefulness element of brand image is indeed distinct as suggested by Michel and Rieunier 2012, and should not be grouped under a broader conceptual umbrella of reputation as some previous studies have suggested (Bennet and Gabriel 2003). The results from this research build on these understandings and support efficiencies' distinctiveness.

Relating to the constituent brand image element affect, this component was also supported by the data. For example, respondents evidenced having a strong emotional connection to the Scouts, and to the organisation successfully projecting such affective oriented benefits of volunteering through its marketing literature (see section 3.13.6). Furthermore, respondents reported how they would seek out Scout volunteer opportunities were they to move away from their current Scout groups, in order to continue to enjoy the togetherness and emotional benefits associated with the Scouts. These results chimed with themes from the literature discussed in section 3.13.6. Namely, the similarity between outcomes of *communitas* (e.g., feelings of belonging, oneness, near sacred experiences (Arnould and Price 1993; Di Giovine 2011; McGinnis et al. 2008) and the affect dimension of brand image (e.g., positive emotional connections (Michel and Rieunier 2012)). Thus, these findings support the identification of the affect element of brand image amongst Scout volunteers.

Efficiency was also supported with respondents emphasising they perceive the Scouts as a competently, and effectively managed organisation. Furthermore, the empirical data intimated Scout volunteers were generally content with the Scouts' current strategy, and leadership (see section 6.4.2). Thus, the efficiency element of brand image was supported, concurring with previous investigation which identified it as performing a positive role in relation to volunteer organisations (Bennett and Gabriel 2003; Michel and Rieunier 2012).

The dynamism component of brand image also found empirical support from the qualitative data, as evidenced by comments presented in section 6.4.4. These comments indicate the dynamic dimensions of brand image contributed positively to Scout volunteers' overall brand image perceptions, as suggested by the preceding academic literature (Michel and Rieunier 2012). In particular, the inclusion of celebrities such as Bear Grylls and an overhaul of the Scouts offerings (e.g., more adventurous trips abroad, equal gender opportunities, being youth-led) were suggested to account in part for the strong dynamism dimension of the Scouts brand image.

Volunteer work engagement was also included in the theoretical model as an experience stage theoretical construct. Each dimension of volunteer work engagement (vigour, dedication, absorption) was empirically vindicated by qualitative phase data. For

example, vigour was empirically supported through comments pertaining to the energy-laden approach volunteers apply to fulfilling their Scouting roles and tasks (see section 3.9). Dedication was evident through interviewees highlighting their willingness to commit to the lengthy amounts of paperwork and administration that is required behind the scenes to allow centrepiece Scout expeditions to take place, as well as the numerous weekends volunteers must commit to Scout administered training (see section 6.5.3). Finally, manifestation of absorption was evident in the qualitative empirical data. Scout volunteers were suggested to conduct their volunteering with high intensity, regularly going above and beyond expectations of their service. Furthermore, the evidence suggested a strong devotion to the organisation contributed to the resultant dedication (see section 6.5.3): Such findings vindicated the inclusion of volunteer work engagement in the theoretical model, and are also supported by prior understanding of the engagement concept in the literature, for example, Schaufeli et al. (2006), and latterly in a volunteer context Vecina et al. (2013) empirically identify the vigour, dedication, and absorption elements of engagement occurring amongst volunteers.

The inclusion of affective commitment and volunteer satisfaction with management as outcomes of volunteering in the theoretical model was also vindicated through the qualitative phase of the research. For example, interviewee evidence suggested the occurrence of affective commitment when commenting on their emotional connection to the Scouts, and their desire to continue to volunteer for the Scouts for as long as possible (see section 6.7). These findings were supported by the broader academic literature, for example affective commitment has also been identified in the non-profit sector by Stride and Higgs (2013) as well as more broadly, in alternative business contexts (Astakhova 2016; Lee et al. 2001; Meyer et al. 2012). Thus, affective commitment as a consequence of volunteering found strong empirical and literary support.

Satisfaction with management's inclusion was again supported by interviewee comments such as highlighting how they were generally pleased with the way management ran the organisations, and commending the quality and usefulness of the training and support available from management (see section 6.6). Satisfaction with management also found support from the wider academic literature, through its successful empirical application to the volunteer context (Jiménez et al. 2009; Vecina et al. 2009; Vecina et al. 2012).

In addition to the *a priori* theoretical themes derived from the literature before the empirical stage of the research, the idea of heritage custodianship - broadly interpreted as measures undertaken by a voluntary organisation to safeguard and protect its heritage - was identified as an additional theme that emerged from the qualitative interview data *posteriori* (see section 6.8). Although the theme of heritage custodianship was not anticipated to be significantly relevant by the author in the preceding literature review, post-hoc analysis of the qualitative data suggested heritage custodianship could actively influence volunteers through its capacity to be influenced by the antecedents, and its effect upon the experiences of volunteering with the Scouts.

Heritage custodianship, as conceptualised in this research, can be viewed as a development of understanding relating to recent empirical investigation of the corporate heritage stewardship concept (Burghausen and Balmer 2015). Corporate heritage stewardship is suggested to represent the “mind-set of nurturing, maintaining, and protecting brand heritage” (Urde et al. 2007 p. 9). In this way, corporate heritage stewardship focuses on sustaining continuity, and “safeguarding the brand’s relevance, credibility and trust” (Burghausen and Balmer 2015 p. 29). Thus, corporate heritage stewardship is suggested to involve a process of heritage excavation, but also to require some degree of curation from senior management involving both continuity protection and explication of heritage through marketing processes (Balmer 2011b; Burghausen and Balmer 2015; Urde et al. 2007). Specifically, corporate heritage stewardship aims to generate competitive advantage for organisations with the ultimate aim of increasing profit (Balmer 2011a; Burghausen and Balmer 2015), thus raising questions relating to its relevance in the realm of non-profit and voluntary organisations.

Rather than corporate heritage stewardship, the term heritage custodianship, specifically relates to a voluntary context, where it is argued safeguarding brand heritage can yield significant benefits to volunteers, their beneficiaries, and their host organisations in an environment exacerbated through resource constraints. It could be partly due to this environment that heritage custodianship is assumed to be far more dyadic and co-creational, whereby using the skills inherent amongst the volunteers to safeguard the organisations heritage, meaning volunteers themselves can also contribute positively to their own volunteering experiences, (see section 6.8) (Burghausen and Balmer 2015;

Kylander and Stone 2012; Musick and Wilson 2008), potentially enhancing their *communitas* experiences, perceptions of brand image, and levels of volunteer work engagement (Michel and Rieunier 2012; Schaufeli et al. 2002; Turner 1964). Through this, volunteers could ultimately enhance affective volunteer commitment and satisfaction with management levels.

Overall, the composition of the empirical model (Figure 15) was justified by the quantitative and qualitative empirical data, and further supported by evidence from the broader literature, thus meeting objective 1.

7.4 Objective 2: To explore how antecedents of volunteering contribute to volunteer experiences in the context of Scouting

The following hypotheses were developed to meet Objective 2, and guided the empirical analysis of the quantitative and qualitative phases of the mixed method research to understand how antecedents of volunteering (i.e., brand heritage), contribute to volunteer experience stage constructs (i.e., brand image, *communitas*, work engagement) manifesting during Scout volunteering. Objective 2 is now discussed in relation to the empirical results of the relevant research hypotheses and the underpinning literature.

7.4.1 H1: Brand heritage has a positive relationship with *communitas* (Supported: $\beta = 0.642$ $p < 0.001$)

Representing an intense and acute feeling of social bonding (Taheri et al. 2016; Turner 1964; Turner 1969), the quantitative results of this research indicate *communitas* can be strengthened through brand heritage, with regard to the structural model presented (Figure 15), this relationship was found to be particularly strong (see section 5.6.4). Indeed, the path coefficient (β) of brand heritage's effect upon *communitas* is shown to be $\beta = 0.642$ (see section 5.6.4), empirically supporting the relationship (i.e., H2). Despite this research being the first to empirically, and theoretically explore this relationship, support can be inferred from the respective concept literature. For example, the literature suggests *communitas* is stimulated by the performance of ritualistic behaviours (Di Giovine 2011; Turner 1969). This notion is supported by the qualitative element of the study, where interviewees noted how Scout volunteers constructed and experienced Scout camps together as a team (see section 6.2, 6.3). Such rituals (e.g., erecting tents together

as a team) can become a part of the heritage and culture of the Scouts, thus indicative of the relationship between brand heritage and *communitas*. Additionally, the Scouts brand heritage possibly helps convey the type of experiences on offer with the organisation, reinforced and reassured by the heritage and length of time the Scouts have offered such experiences. This idea compliments another respondent who suggested the externally communicated brand conveyed ideas of community and camaraderie which was possibly intensified through enhanced levels of trust in the Scouts (see section 6.2, 6.3). Kylander and Stone (2012) and Rich et al. (2010) assert the importance of alignment between an individual's beliefs, and those held by their host organisation; similarly, the heritage conveyed through brand heritage could help ensure volunteers hold shared views and values, and stimulate deeper feelings of connectedness and camaraderie amongst them to make *communitas* more likely (McGinnis et al. 2008; Wiedmann et al. 2011a).

Relating to the volunteer context, the quantitative results show that the Scouts comprise of volunteers with various levels of educational attainment (see section 5.2.3) (and therefore likely varied social background (Perry and Francis 2010)), rendering the social structure of the Scouts particularly complementary to *communitas* which can be optimised when social barriers are broken down (Di Giovine 2011; Turner 1969). Previous empirical study of *communitas* also tacitly supports this (McGinnis et al. 2012; Wallace 2006), although it could be suggested that the volunteer context in this research (which offers roles demanding widely varying levels of competencies and skills) is only tacitly considered in relation to *communitas*, represents the most fertile environment for *communitas* experiences to manifest and, indeed, satisfying motivations for social contact widely held by volunteers (Holmes and Slater 2012).

7.4.2 H2: Brand heritage has a positive relationship with volunteer work engagement (Supported: $\beta = 0.316$ $p < 0.001$)

The results of the quantitative analysis supported a positive relationship between brand heritage and volunteers' satisfaction with management (H2), although the results indicated a relationship of a lesser strength than brand heritage and *communitas*, the total effect was still statistically significant with a path coefficient indicating a statistical relationship ($\beta = 0.316$).

As this research represents the first time brand heritage has been directly, and empirically shown to have a relationship with satisfaction with management academic support is limited, although this finding does broadly concur with the available literature and is further supported by the qualitative element of this study. For example, Wiedmann et al. (2011a) note that brand heritage has a positive effect upon the satisfaction of consumers in the luxury car industry. Although the industry and consumers themselves differ from volunteers, both satisfaction conceptualisations are indicative of a positive outcome.

The relationship is also supported by the notion that brands can help foster high levels of alignment between the values of volunteers, and the host organisation, resulting in an improved retention and motivation rate of volunteers, and heightened satisfaction (Farmer and Fedor 2001; Kylander and Stone 2012; Mort et al. 2007; Rose-Ackerman 1996; Schultz 2001). The particular outcomes attributable to brand heritage such as improved trust, and emotional reassurance, can stimulate highly personal interactions and psychological commitment to organisations (Ardelet et al. 2015; Morgan and Hunt 1994; Mort et al. 2007; Schultz 2001) which has been associated with higher levels of resulting satisfaction (Garbarino and Johnson 1999; Sargeant and Lee 2004a; 2004b).

The qualitative element of the research offers further insight and support for this relationship, as interviewees are broadly complimentary of the way the Scouts are managed (see section 6.6). In general, the qualitative data suggest contentment with management, but also intimate at an inherent forgiveness and understanding amongst volunteers when management occasionally get things wrong. Conceivably, this relationship is underpinned by the trust and awareness of the longevity and culture of the organisation, fostered and communicated through brand heritage (Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Some limited evidence emerged of problems affecting satisfaction that could potentially be exacerbated by brand heritage, and its manifestation in a voluntary organisation was gathered (see section 6.6). These issues related to feelings of exclusivity concerning allocation of tasks and responsibilities at camps, especially amongst newcomers to Scouting, may or may not be substantive, however, perceived exclusivity could have a negative influence on volunteers and may constitute an unfortunate side-effect of strong brand heritage, although further research would be needed to fully establish this.

7.5 Objective 3: To explore how antecedents of volunteering impact on the consequences of volunteering with the Scouts

The hypotheses below were developed to meet Objective 3 (H3, H4), and were empirically explored to understand how antecedents of volunteering (i.e., brand heritage) affect the consequences of Scout volunteering (i.e., affective commitment, and satisfaction with management). Objective 3 is now considered in tandem with relevant empirical results and appropriate literature.

7.5.1 H3: Brand heritage has a positive relationship with affective commitment (Supported: $\beta = 0.226$ $p < 0.001$)

Brand heritage represents a compilation of past stories relating to an organisation's brand (Ardelet et al. 2015), and is noted as an important area for future branding research (Ardelet et al. 2015; Mort et al. 2007; Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Indeed, brand heritage has been described by Ardelet et al. (2015 p. 2) as the "the linking glue", which enables consumers, or perhaps volunteers, to better evaluate their experiences with an organisation. Previous research exploring affective commitment, notes a more committed volunteer workforce maintain their volunteer positions for longer, which can help reduce turnover, re-training costs, and boost morale (D'Annunzio-Green et al. 2008; Kylander and Stone 2012; Vecina et al. 2013), support for this relationship (H3) was intimated within the literature, and supported through a path coefficient result of $\beta = 0.226$.

The empirical element of this research (the first to explore brand heritage quantitatively in the non-profit context) offered support for its role in enhancing the affective commitment of volunteers. Results from the quantitative analysis showed statistical support for a direct relationship between brand heritage and affective commitment (see section 5.6). While explicit empirical support for brand heritage's relationship with affective commitment is absent in the literature, implicit support can be inferred from studies that explore how concepts encompassing similar attributes of brand heritage, can enhance affective commitment in the non-profit sector (Kylander and Stone 2012; Lee 2016; Vecina et al. 2013; Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Given trust enhancement is noted as being one outcome of brand heritage (Rose et al. 2016; Wiedmann et al. 2011a), a similar relationship was expected. This is supported by studies linking trust to the undertaking of volunteer activity (Bekkers and Bowman 2009; Brown and Ferris 2007; Taniguchi and

Marshall 2014), and the sustainment of such activity (Lee 2016) but, also more broadly, in research positioned in the private sector which notes trust to be inherent in developing two-way long-term professional relationships conducive to commitment (Allen et al. 2003; Grossman 1999; Johnson and Grayson 2005). The qualitative study suggested the Scouts heritage contributed to reassuring volunteers who gave their time and energy to the organisation (see section 6.2), thus serving to highlight the importance of trust in fostering volunteer affective commitment.

In addition to support from trust-oriented literature, brand heritage is described as comprising positive track record, longevity, use of symbols, core values and an organisational belief that its history is important (Wiedmann et al. 2011a). The connection between these elements and affective commitment was further supported through the qualitative empirical research with respondents commenting on the fact the Scouts have been operational for a protracted length of time. Again, these results speak to the literature, which suggests concepts of similar virtue (e.g., nostalgic marketing, heritage branding, positive reputation) to longevity and positive track record (which are akin to history and reputation respectively) can yield positive outcomes, including strengthening of affective commitment (Johnson and Grayson 2005; Peñaloza 2000; Thompson et al. 1994).

Another element of brand heritage is the use of symbols by an organisation (Wiedmann et al. 2011a). The non-profit sector benefits from some of the most recognisable brand symbols in the world (Kylander and Stone 2012; Mort et al. 2007), with examples including the World Wide Fund for Nature panda, or the red, arms-outstretched child figure used by Save the Children. Again, explicit empirical research exploring how brand symbols relate to volunteers' affective commitment is lacking in the non-profit literature (see section 3.12) although it has been suggested in the research (Bennett 1988; Kylander and Stone 2012; Wiedmann et al. 2011a; Wood 2000). Rather than accounting for enhanced volunteer affective commitment directly, it could be suggested that the symbol(s) conveying brand heritage, helps contribute to it optimising the concept. For example, it may be that it is the incorporation of appropriate symbols that reinforce the positive track record, longevity, use of symbols, core values and an organisational belief

in the importance of its history that contribute to the overall relationship between brand heritage and volunteer affective commitment.

The qualitative study proved enlightening with regard to the symbols that convey the Scouts brand heritage which moved beyond a well-designed logo. Respondents suggested the traditional ceremonies undertaken at Scout camps, the distinctive and easily identifiable uniforms worn by Scouts and even the traditional styles of camping all constituted symbols conveying Scouts brand heritage (see section 6.2). This broader understanding of symbols speaks to an increasingly accepted understanding that brands are not merely created, controlled and delivered by marketing professionals, but instead developed augmented and supplemented in a complex process involving all areas of an organisation (Jevons 2005; Miller and Merrilees 2013; Park et al. 1986).

Furthermore, the core values aspect of brand heritage, and its potential contribution to affective commitment was also supported by the qualitative data. Respondents suggested the Scouts continue to modernise and innovate its offerings, but caution the need to retain the traditionally Scouts-oriented essence of the organisations (see section 6.2) emphasising the importance of core values as an element of brand heritage, and underpinning its relationship to affective commitment (Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Consequently, the mixed methods data demonstrated empirical support for arguments intimated in the broader literature, and demonstrated a positive relationship between brand heritage and volunteer affective commitment.

7.5.2 H4: Brand Heritage has a positive relationship with satisfaction with management (Supported: $\beta = 0.209$ $p < 0.001$)

The quantitative results of this research also supported the hypothesised relationship between brand heritage (incorporating an organisation's track record, values, symbol use, and position of its history) (Wiedmann et al. 2011a), and volunteers' satisfaction with their management (H4), indicating a moderate level of statistically significant effect shown through a path coefficient value of $\beta = 0.209$. These findings are the first to explicitly and empirically justify this relationship, although the broader literature provides additional support which informed the original conceptualisation of the hypothesis (see sections 3.5, 3.11 and 3.13.4). Nevertheless, Wiedmann et al. (2011a) suggest brand

heritage can positively influence the related concept of customer satisfaction in the context of luxury consumer goods. Additionally, the quantitative results from this research speak to ideas conveyed in the literature that suggest enhanced congruence between individuals and the brands they selectively associate with can generate positive emotional outcomes (Kylander and Stone 2012; Mort et al. 2007; Schultz 2001; Shantz et al. 2014). Brand heritage, which can be described as an amalgamation and synthesis of brand stories (Ardelet et al. 2015) can potentially foster an intimate relationship between an individual and organisation, supporting a mutual process of embeddedness between organisational brand, and an individual's perceived personal heritage (Ardelet et al. 2015; Graeff 1996), potentially fostering relationships of congruence and complementarity. In this sense, volunteers inspired by, associating, and identifying with the brand heritage of an organisation will likely be more satisfied with their managers than those who do not (Ardelet et al. 2015).

Furthermore, the quantitative results are also supported by literature suggesting brand heritage can generate strong bonds of trust between organisation brands and their customers (Wiedmann et al. 2011a). The creation of trust between volunteers and their host organisations could help promote a positive perception of the organisation, and therefore its management, as volunteers become more forgiving of the shortcomings of their managers, tempered by a trust-fuelled belief that management are doing as good a job as possible (Podsakoff et al. 1990; Sargeant and Lee 2004a; Sargeant and Lee 2004b; Taniguchi and Marshall 2014).

The qualitative element of the research concurred with the quantitative results and contributed to offering a richer understanding of the relationship. For example, interviewees noted how the longevity associated with the Scouts contributed to enhancing their commitment levels towards the Scouts (see section 6.2), suggesting volunteer commitment, and therefore likely satisfaction (Vecina et al. 2012), can exert a positive influence through the Scouts' heritage. Furthermore, respondents also commented on their willingness to forgive mistakes made by management (see section 6.4.2), buttressing the notion that brand heritage can foster a long-term, forgiving relationship between volunteers and their managers, founded upon high levels of trust and the development of a shared and intimate heritage. Ultimately, both methodological elements of this research

support the broader literature, and offer empirical support for a positive relationship between brand heritage and volunteer satisfaction with management.

7.6 Objective 4: To deepen understanding of volunteer experiences

The following hypotheses (H5, H6) were formulated to meet Objective 4, and were empirically investigated in order to develop understanding of volunteer experiences and the effect *communitas*, brand image, and volunteer work engagement have on volunteering with the Scouts.

7.6.1 H5: Brand image has a positive relationship with volunteer work engagement (Supported: $\beta = 0.375$ $p < 0.001$)

The quantitative empirical research demonstrated a positive relationship between brand image (as a higher-order construct) and volunteer work engagement with a path coefficient of $\beta = 0.375$ (see section 5.6.4). Thus, the equity of effect upon volunteer work engagement attributable to brand image, as opposed to other constructs, is shown to be relatively low. Nevertheless, the positive relationship resonates with the broader literature which intimates a relationship (Bendapudi et al. 1996; do Paço et al. 2014; Kylander and Stone 2012; Saxton 1995; Vecina et al. 2013; Wiedmann et al. 2011a) and ultimately supports the idea that non-profit organisations should develop a positive brand image to strengthen and grow (Faulkner et al. 2015).

Although represented through limited application, brand image has been associated with enhancing trust, improving the recruitment of volunteers, and improvements in donation rates (Bendapudi et al. 1996; Chiagouris 2005; Michel and Rieunier 2012; Randle et al. 2013; Saxton 1995), thus indicating it performs a positive role within the non-profit context. Further support for the relationship can be found in the ability of brand image to contribute to creating trust and alignment between volunteers, and organisations, which is suggested by Kylander and Stone (2012) to contribute by helping all actors within the non-profit organisation focus and concentrate towards reaching a common goal, a notion conceptually complementary of our understanding of engagement (Cole et al. 2012; Maslach et al. 2001). Cognisance of job role and its accompanying expectations has also been noted to contribute positively to volunteer engagement (Harp et al. 2016). The quantitative results resonate with Harp et al.'s (2016) research and, perhaps, suggest that

brand image can help enhance engagement through communicating accurate depictions and expectations of volunteers.

All four sub-dimensions of brand image: usefulness, efficiency, affect, and dynamism were discernible in the qualitative element of the empirical research. The usefulness dimension was evidenced by comments attesting to the invaluable community benefit offered by the Scouts (see section 6.4.1). Such comments demonstrate the Scouts are perceived as a useful organisation; the literature notes how brand image can be external, and internally conveyed, but works most effectively when in alignment (Kylander and Stone 2012). Thus, the Scouts internal perceived usefulness appears to be contributing positively to the organisation; however, to explore external perceptions effectively would require additional study, with a non-Scout volunteer sample.

The efficiency element of the Scouts' brand image relates to the perception that the organisation is competently organised and managed, and prudently allocates its resources (Michel and Rieunier 2012). Perceived efficiency within the Scouts' brand image is also supported by the qualitative interview data. In particular, the specific nomenclature used within the Scouts was found to serve as a strong influencer of how efficiency, regarding the brand image, is perceived. The qualitative data suggested the vernacular and titles system used in the Scouts contributes to perceptions of heritage and authenticity toward management. For example, the use of terms such as Chief Commissioner contribute to perceptions of effective management, suggesting the internal terminology contributes to a professional, efficient and trust-building image and, ultimately, enhances engagement within the Scouts (see section 6.4.2). In keeping with Knox and Freeman's (2006) emphasis that brands are increasingly neither internal, nor external, but all-encompassing, the results intimate a similar influence could be occurring outwith the organisation, although further research would be required for confirmation.

As another sub-dimension of brand image, affect also demonstrated a positive relationship with volunteer work engagement, indicating respondents have an emotional connection with the Scouts' brand image, and perceive friendliness and warmth within its brand image (Michel and Rieunier 2012). The qualitative data supported the presence of an affect dimension within the Scouts' brand image, the friendliness element of affect was particularly strong evidenced by comments attesting to the friend-group opportunities

volunteering with the Scouts can bring (see section 6.4.3). Evidence that the affect dimension is conveyed externally is intimated through further comments noting the inherence of friendliness and team spirit within the Scouts marketing literature (see section 6.4.3), indicating that the Scouts are attempting to align external and internal brand image as academic literature suggests (Bendapudi et al. 1996; Kylander and Stone 2012).

Finally, the dynamism element of brand image was shown to be related to volunteer work engagement as part of the higher-order brand image model (see section 5.6). Dynamism within brand image pertains to the extent the organisation's brand image is perceived as modern and innovative (Michel and Rieunier 2012). The qualitative evidence enriches understanding of the dynamic element, for example, responses suggested the appointment of celebrity survival specialist Bear Grylls as Chief Scout represents a positive step forward for the organisation (see section 6.4.4). Dynamism's presence is also supported within the Scouts through innovative changes to the structure of the organisation, notably, its move to becoming increasingly youth-led was observed in the data (see section 6.4.4). The benefits of being perceived as innovative, and explicating this through brands represents an avenue through which the Scouts can further differentiate from competitors, attracting new, whilst retaining, and more effectively engaging with current volunteers (Aaker 2007). Nevertheless, the particular advantages, and effect upon brand image of being youth-led requires additional research to generate a more in-depth understanding. Ultimately, the findings of both quantitative and qualitative elements are tacitly supported by the limited extant literature (Aaker 2007; Bendapudi et al. 1996; Knox and Freeman 2006; Kylander and Stone 2012). Thus, the notion that strong usefulness, efficiency, affect, and dynamism dimensions of brand image can enhance and deepen volunteer work engagement (comprising of absorption, dedication and vigour (Vecina et al. 2013)) helps marketing managers enhance engagement through their branding activities.

7.6.2 H6: Communitas has a positive relationship with brand image (Supported: $\beta = 0.627$ $p < 0.001$)

The results demonstrate a strong relationship between communitas and brand image (see section 5.6.4). In particular, the path coefficient of .627, suggests a very significant

relationship. This result concurs with suggestions in the literature that *communitas*, which can stimulate intense social bonding between individuals (McGinnis et al. 2008; Taheri et al. 2016; Wallace 2006), contributes to perceptions of the Scouts brand, and complements the results demonstrating a connection between brand heritage, and *communitas* (see section 5.6.4). Although *communitas* and brand image have not been explicitly considered together in the extant literature, several studies intimate support for the relationship, particularly pertaining to usefulness, and affect dimensions of brand image (Di Giovine 2011; McGinnis et al. 2008; Meyer et al. 2002; Michel and Rieunier 2012).

As the usefulness dimension of brand image is focused on the extent the brand is perceived to be helpful and of value to an individual (Michel and Rieunier 2012), the extent of satisfaction of some of the motivations for volunteering (for example, making a difference, acquiring new skills, socialising (Musick and Wilson 2008)) with an organisation can potentially affect this dimension. For example, the qualitative element of the research captured comments alluding to the positive effects of *communitas* and its ability to shape brand image, for example, through the design and inherent characteristics of Scout camps (see section 6.3.), suggesting the positive effects attributable to *communitas* (Di Giovine 2011; McGinnis et al. 2008) can be explicated to volunteers to enhance brand image. This process could be occurring through the use of banners, flags, and other visible displays characteristic of scouting activities, constituting a voluntary organisation version of the service environment (McGinnis et al. 2008), and would represent an interesting avenue for future research to fully explore.

Suggestions of a strong relationship between *communitas* and brand image are further supported when the affective brand image dimension is considered. The affective dimension is concerned with the emotional perception volunteers develop towards the brand image (Michel and Rieunier 2012). More broadly, research suggests that strong emotional connection and investment between individuals and brands represent a powerful marketing tool, and can lead to mutually beneficial long-term relationships (Globe 2001; Thompson et al. 2006). Thus, consideration of the effects of and exposure to, *communitas* (e.g., high perceived organisational support, strong social bonds, improved psychological well-being (Di Giovine 2011; McGinnis et al. 2008; Turner

1969)) suggests volunteers would logically perceive an emotional connection between themselves and the Scouts' brand image. The qualitative data supports this argument, with several respondents commenting on the strength of camaraderie within the Scouts, and how that encourages them to continue volunteering (see section 6.3). As brand image was operationalised as a higher-order model for this research (see section 5.3.6), the quantitative analysis results do not differentiate between brand image's four sub-dimensions, although future research should consider examining these further.

7.7 Objective 5: To evaluate the influence of volunteer experiences upon the consequences of volunteering with the Scouts.

To meet the final objective, the hypotheses (H7, H8, H9, H10) derived from the literature were empirically assessed and integrated with the extant literature toward determining the influence of volunteer experience stage concepts (i.e., *communitas*, brand image, volunteer work engagement) on the consequences of volunteering with the Scouts (i.e., affective commitment, and volunteer satisfaction with management). In addition to these hypotheses, post-hoc analyses (see section 5.6.6) uncovered a further three relationships (H11, H12, H13), which are also discussed along with the literature.

7.7.1 H7: *Communitas* has a positive relationship with affective commitment (Supported: $\beta = 0.168$ $p < 0.001$)

The quantitative results showed support for a positive relationship between *communitas* and affective commitment - which is defined as a strong emotional bond between volunteer and organisation (Allen and Meyer 1990; Chênevert et al. 2015; Meyer et al. 2002) - amongst volunteers. Within the context of this study, path coefficient results of (β) 0.168, and an effect suggested this is one of the weaker relationships within the structural model (see section 5.6.4). Nevertheless, the relationship was also supported by evidence from the qualitative interviews, and develops limited understanding of the interplay between *communitas* and affective commitment in the literature.

Communitas manifests as perceived sacred experiences, typified by intense social bonding, and camaraderie that defies typical social strata (Belk et al. 1989; Turner 1969). Thus *communitas* offers volunteers an environment outwith their professional setting, and separate from their home life and day-to-day responsibilities (McGinnis et al. 2008).

Particularly in a society suffering from increasing rates of loneliness, and negative health consequences associated with declining social interactivity (Hawkley and Cacioppo 2010), provision of *communitas* could logically serve to enhance volunteer affective commitment to their host organisation. Supporting this argument, affective commitment is known to be strengthened by antecedents such as positive work experiences derived through organisational cohesion, support, and perceptions of organisational justice (Allen and Meyer 1990; Bishop et al. 2000; Chênevert et al. 2015; De Gilder 2003; Meyer et al. 2002; Musick and Wilson 2008). This speaks to understanding of *communitas*, which can generate close social bonds and intense camaraderie, contributing to stimulating affective commitment. *Communitas*' propensity to generate intense experiences, echoes understanding of the concept of flow, which produces a state of mind in which individuals become wholly absorbed and focused on an activity, and will seek to re-achieve such a state (Celsi et al. 1993; Csikszentmihalyi 1997; McGinnis et al. 2008). Similarly, *communitas* experiences are suggested to elicit a desire to re-experience, and re-achieve them, and therefore could help generate affective commitment (McGinnis et al. 2008; Schaufeli et al. 2002).

The qualitative element of the research contributes to develop a richer understanding suggestive of the togetherness and belonging heritage and the *communitas*-inducing practices involved in Scout volunteering can evoke. Inherent in the respondent's comments, was the idea of being part of a larger community that fosters a sense of camaraderie, which likely promotes emotional and technical support from fellow volunteers and management (see section 6.7).

Boezeman and Ellemers (2007) show how volunteer pride and levels of mutual respect also promote commitment. Additionally, the enhancement of trust has been suggested to positively influence affective commitment (De Gilder 2003; Gounaris 2005). Such studies consider commitment antecedents that could be attributable to *communitas* experiences (Di Giovine 2011; Sharpe 2005; Turner 1964; Wallace 2006) and further speaks to the empirical results. For example, notions of pride, and significant levels of affective commitment can be inferred from some of the qualitative findings (see section 6.7 and 6.3), which imply a longevity of involvement that suggests high levels of

affective connection and commitment to the Scouts, enlightening potentially useful avenues for management within the Scouts to stimulate affective commitment further.

7.7.2 H8: Communitas has a positive relationship with satisfaction with management $\beta =$ (Supported: 0.236 $p < 0.001$)

Concurring with suggestions from the academic literature, the quantitative results showed a small, but positive relationship between *communitas* and satisfaction with management, with a path coefficient of 0.236 (see section 5.6.4). The literature suggests satisfaction with management can increase as a result of enhanced organisational pride, and self-esteem (Ashforth and Mael 1989; Lee 2016), lending support to the notion that *communitas*, which can enhance feelings of togetherness, self-esteem and pride (Di Giovine 2011; McGinnis et al. 2008) can positively influence satisfaction.

The qualitative data offers deeper insight into this relationship, conveying how, perhaps due to enhanced camaraderie within the organisation, volunteers are understanding of managements' infrequent yet inevitable shortcomings (see section 6.6). Respondents also praised the training programmes on offer to Scout volunteers; perhaps such programmes themselves contribute to enhancing *communitas* (and therefore satisfaction with management), although further research peeling back the layers of this relationship could prove useful to managers. Literature suggests perceptions of organisational support can produce positive volunteer attitudes towards their host organisations, further strengthening the case for a relationship (Ohana et al. 2012). The qualitative research intimated potential instances of both favouritism and perceived injustice regarding the allocation of tasks with the Scouts, accompanied by the suggestion that it could negatively affect satisfaction (see section 6.6). Although full interpretation is beyond the scope of this research, the literature does emphasise the importance of maintaining transparency and legitimate management practices (Farndale et al. 2011; Ohana et al. 2012; Rhoades et al. 2001). Thus, developing *communitas* experiences amongst volunteers (especially from different regions and sections of Scouting) could represent one approach for management to further develop trust and openness within the organisation.

Despite being overlooked in the preceding literature, the results and intimations from extant research support the notion the Scouts could further leverage *communitas* to enhance the beneficial effects of high levels of satisfaction with management, which has been broadly associated with improved volunteer retention and recruitment (Ohana et al. 2013; Vecina et al. 2012). Furthermore, the qualitative results hint that the beneficial effects of *communitas* may also foster a more understanding attitude amongst volunteers towards perceived management shortcomings.

7.7.3 H9: Volunteer work engagement has a positive relationship with satisfaction with management (Supported: $\beta = 0.234$ $p < 0.001$)

Previous literature supports a positive relationship between volunteer work engagement and volunteers' satisfaction towards management (Vecina et al. 2012), this research echoes previous results. For example, the quantitative element of this study suggests a relationship through a path coefficient value of 0.234 (see section 5.6.4), suggesting more vigorous, dedicated, and absorbed volunteers exhibit higher satisfaction levels. Given increasing engagement has been associated with reductions in volunteer turnover (Vecina et al. 2012; Wilson 2012), the Scouts could look at ways of leveraging this relationship more effectively to reduce costs and boost morale in the organisation. The qualitative element of the research supported these suggestions and offered more in-depth understanding and is drawn upon in discussion of engagement constituent elements.

The broader literature complements these findings, and supports a relationship for all three sub-dimensions of volunteer work engagement (Vecina et al. 2012). Although the construct was operationalised in this study as a higher-order component model (see section 5.3.6) consideration of support for each lower-order component, in relation to the higher-order composition's results can elicit further insight. For example, enhanced levels of vigour adoption by volunteers has been shown to impact positively on their resulting satisfaction with management (Vecina et al. 2012) and increase the likelihood of them continuing to volunteer (Shantz et al. 2014). Using a different, but nevertheless overlapping definition of engagement and satisfaction, Rich et al. (2010) suggest a broad, positive relationship between the two concepts. Support for vigour's relationship with satisfaction is also substantiated through the qualitative data emphasising the energy and

dedication from Scout volunteers (see section 6.5.1). Here the respondent emphasises the energetic spirit volunteering with the Scouts demands, but intimates that the high-energy approach is perceived as worthwhile given it contributes to the young Scouts experiences, and speaking to our understanding of vigour (Schaufeli et al. 2002 p. 74).

Dedication, an element of work engagement, relates to feelings of “significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge” (Schaufeli et al. 2002 p. 74), and as another volunteer work engagement dimension, has been shown to positively influence levels of satisfaction with management amongst volunteers (Vecina et al. 2012). This is supported by evidence from a non-volunteering context which shows dedication is similarly correlated to satisfaction with management in the hospitality industry (Salanova et al. 2005). The qualitative data intimates highly dedicated volunteers within the Scouts as they commit extensive amounts of time, and take pride in volunteering: (see section 6.5.3). The respondents comments echo notions of challenge, pride and enthusiasm that are central to dedication, although some responses cautioned management against allowing inequity of dedication distribution amongst volunteers to go unchecked, speaking to strands of management literature that identify perceived organisational injustice as having a negative impact on employees and volunteers (see section 6.5.3) (Farndale et al. 2011; Garner and Garner 2010; Ohana et al. 2013). Furthermore, dedication has been suggested to contribute to increase the amount of time spent volunteering (Musick and Wilson 2008; Shantz et al. 2014), thus, it is likely that those volunteers who are more highly dedicated develop more positive relationships with management through increased exposure, concurring with research suggestions from alternative settings (Papagiannidis et al. 2013). Additionally, it may be the case more dedicated volunteers see their status and responsibilities within the volunteering organisation increase, hence leading them to view themselves as part of the management infrastructure. Further research could seek to explore these issues in more depth.

Absorption, defined as when an individual is “...fully concentrated and deeply engrossed in one’s work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work” (Schaufeli et al. 2002 p. 75), is contingent on possession of necessary (and managerially influenced) physical and psychological resources (Schaufeli et al. 2002; Shuck 2011; Vecina et al. 2012). Absorption has been shown to also positively

affect satisfaction with management, and ultimately, volunteer retention (Shantz et al. 2014; Vecina et al. 2012). Empirical evidence shows interaction levels between volunteers and beneficiaries positively affect volunteer engagement (Shantz et al. 2014); thus, a similarly positive outcome is likely to result from elevated levels of absorption, and consequent extended interaction experiences with management (Papagiannidis et al. 2013), although further research in this is required for full understanding. The quantitative results of this research were further supported and enriched by the qualitative element, which emphasised the intensity and absorptive character of Scout volunteer engagement (see section 6.5.2). Indicating high levels of engrossment in fulfilling their volunteer roles, additional evidence of absorption was evidenced by interviewee comments alluding to how they give their all to their volunteering role, and make substantial contributions of personal energy, suggesting volunteers with the Scouts enjoy being absorbed in the tasks they undertake and are likely satisfied when such absorption is enhanced. This speaks to results of the research that indicates volunteer satisfaction can be positively influenced through volunteers feeling they are making a positive difference to their host organisation (Musick and Wilson 2008).

The concept of absorption shares some similarity with flow, which is considered a more sustained and magnified version of the concept (Schaufeli et al. 2002), typified by intense attention, captivation and clarity (Csikszentmihalyi 1997; Schaufeli et al. 2002; Taheri et al. 2016). Given there is only limited empirical application of absorption, some additional support for the results found in this research is housed in flow literature. For example, Papagiannidis et al. (2013) find evidence that flow promoting experiences can enhance satisfaction levels amongst customers using virtual shopping environments; similarly McGinnis et al. (2008) show flow contributes positively to increasing customer satisfaction during prolonged service encounters. The results of these studies therefore speak supportively of the results presented in section 5.6.4.

Overall, the literature concurs with the results of this research, and supports volunteer work engagement having a positive relationship with volunteer satisfaction with management, thus suggesting more intensely vigorous, dedicated and absorbed volunteers will be more satisfied with the way in which they are managed (Vecina et al. 2012). Management should, therefore, carefully consider their engagement enhancing strategies

towards deriving improved satisfaction levels and its resultant outcomes (e.g., improved volunteer retention, and recruitment (Musick and Wilson 2008; Wilson 2012)).

7.7.4 H10: Volunteer work engagement has a positive relationship with affective commitment (Supported: $\beta = 0.364$ $p < 0.001$)

Volunteer work engagement (see section 3.9.2) was shown to positively influence volunteers affective commitment (see section 3.12.1), evidenced through a path coefficient result of .364 (see section 5.6.4). The qualitative element of the research offered additional, limited support for this relationship; however, the results found are supported by the broader academic literature, which will now be considered in relation to engagement's constituent elements: vigour, dedication, and absorption (Musick and Wilson 2008; Vecina et al. 2012).

The vigour element of volunteer work engagement can be described as a highly energetic approach being taken towards work (Shantz et al. 2014; Vecina et al. 2012; Vecina et al. 2013). Vecina et al. (2012) empirically show vigour holds a positive relationship towards affective commitment; these findings are supported by the results of this research (see section 5.6.4). Furthermore, the volunteering literature suggests many individuals who input high levels of personal time, and energy into their volunteering feel positive about doing so, and accept such sacrifices as magnifiers of their altruism (Bender 2003; Musick and Wilson 2008). These results support this notion, lending weight to the idea that volunteers taking an intense, energetic approach to volunteering are likely to become more emotionally attached to the organisation, and thus demonstrate higher levels of affective commitment (Musick and Wilson 2008; Vecina et al. 2012).

Dedication's relationship with affective commitment was also supported in the literature explicitly and implicitly (Lee 2013; Musick and Wilson 2008; Vecina et al. 2012). Explicit support is shown by Vecina et al. (2012), but is also found in other strands of the literature which suggest high levels of pride (a characteristic of the dedication element of engagement) can contribute to volunteer satisfaction and commitment (Katzenbach 2003; Lee 2016; Werbel and Gilliland 1999). Most recently, Lee (2016) finds statistical support for this relationship, and underpins these results by drawing upon elements of social identification theory which suggest volunteers are likely more satisfied when personally

invested, and connected with an organisation (Lee 2016; Tyler 1999). Indeed, as pride is shown, empirically, to enhance volunteer satisfaction (Lee 2016), it is likely to also enhance levels of affective commitment.

The absorption element of volunteer work engagement having a relationship with affective commitment is supported by arguments grounded upon its conceptual similarity to flow (McGinnis et al. 2008; Schaufeli et al. 2002), which is noted to be an addictive experience, that experiencers are drawn towards repeating (Csikszentmihalyi 1997; Schaufeli et al. 2002). The results of this research suggest a similar logic in relation to absorption, indicating that as volunteers become more highly absorbed, they seek to re-experience instances of absorption (Celsi et al. 1993), and so become increasingly affectively committed to an organisation, sustaining involvement with it for longer (McGinnis et al. 2008). Broadly, the results in this research concur with empirical enquiry previously undertaken which indicates a relationship between engagement and commitment amongst volunteers, and demonstrates the usefulness of the concepts in influencing volunteers' decisions to continue volunteering (Chacón 2007; Vecina et al. 2012; Vecina et al. 2013). Scout management should, therefore, consider accommodating, and initiating absorptive experiences where possible, in order to increase volunteer affective commitment. Determining the specific practical steps management could implement may require further research which could explore absorption in further detail using the lower-order conceptualisation of volunteer work engagement.

7.7.5 H11: There is an indirect relationship between brand heritage and affective commitment, mediated by *communitas* (Supported: $\beta = 0.277$ $p < 0.001$)

Building on discussion in chapter 5 the quantitative analysis suggested *communitas* acts as a mediating influence on the relationship between brand heritage and volunteers affective commitment (see section 5.6.6). The indirect path is tacitly supported within the literature in the sense that strong brands can contribute to establishing an internal organisational culture conducive to strengthening camaraderie and bonding amongst staff and volunteers (Hankinson 2004; Kylander and Stone 2012). Furthermore, the qualitative research tacitly supports the quantitatively demonstrated moderation, as elements of the broad manifestation of brand heritage identified by respondents also facilitate the

development of *communitas*. For example, respondents referenced the daily flag-raising ceremonies, camp inspections, and communal dining and washing rituals (see section 6.3). Such ceremonies reinforce the internal brand heritage of the organisation, while also evoking a strong sense of community, belonging, and camaraderie. In particular, the ceremonies within the Scouts are conducted without regard to a volunteer's external, non-volunteering profile, where such ceremonies negate the influence of traditional demarcations of social status and derive the same intensity of observance from across the volunteer cohort. This is commensurate with our understanding of *communitas* which disregards indicators such as social class, education, and employment status to stimulate intense bonding and near spiritual experiences (Belk et al. 1989; Di Giovine 2011; Turner 1969).

7.7.6 H12: There is an indirect relationship between brand heritage and volunteer satisfaction with management, mediated by *communitas* (Supported: $\beta = 0.261$ $p < 0.001$)

Expanding discussion of brand heritage's relationship with satisfaction with management, *communitas* was empirically shown to act as a mediator of this relationship (see section 5.6.6). This finding resonates with literature on *communitas* and brand heritage, and suggests the stimulation of trust attributable to brand heritage can foster stronger bonds and camaraderie amongst volunteers, propagating *communitas* (McGinnis et al. 2008; Mort et al. 2007; Schultz 2001; Turner 1969; Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Respondents remarked on the friendliness of their fellow Scout volunteers, as well as the ability for their feelings towards the organisation to become so strong as to represent an extended family for them (see section 6.3). These comments reinforce the benefits of communicating the values, spirit, and heritage of an organisation to convey realistic and accurate expectations of what volunteers can expect to experience before delivering on them. Again, the research broadly supports the idea that alignment of values between volunteers and host organisations generates satisfied and motivated volunteers (Farmer and Fedor 2001; Kylander and Stone 2012; Musick and Wilson 2008). Furthermore, the results intimate that enhancements to levels of camaraderie could strengthen subsequent levels of volunteer satisfaction with management.

7.7.7 H13: There is an indirect relationship between brand heritage and volunteer work engagement, mediated by *communitas* (Supported: $\beta = 0.151$ $p < 0.001$)

Expanding discussion of the relationship between brand heritage, and volunteer work engagement (see section 0) the quantitative results also supported a mediation role being performed by *communitas* between brand heritage and volunteer work engagement, evidenced through the path coefficient value of 0.151 (see section 5.6.6). Although this relationship is not explicitly supported within the previous literature, more abstract support does intimate a mediatory role. For example, *communitas* experiences are characterised by intense social bonding, and camaraderie resulting in strong feelings of togetherness (Di Giovine 2011; Turner 1969), thus speaking to our understanding of work engagement and how it could logically be enhanced through a closely knit and supportive volunteer workforce (Musick and Wilson 2008; Selander 2015; Vecina et al. 2013), and more broadly to the importance of the social aspect of volunteering which has been widely demonstrated in the literature (Clary and Miller 1986; Musick and Wilson 2008; Wilson 2012). Respondents emphasised feelings of togetherness and fraternity within the Scouts, and how various social events for the leaders enabled them to make friends away from their primary occupation (see section 6.3). Indeed, the act of volunteering has been considered as a means of escape from problems (Meneghini 2016) and a method of satisfying a range of psychological motivations (Harbert 2012). For example, individuals may be frustrated by a lack of success in their professional capacities, but accumulate power and influence in a volunteer setting.

7.8 Heritage custodianship

As outlined in section 6.8, an additional theme, heritage custodianship, emerged *posteriori* from the qualitative phase of the study. Heritage custodianship is now discussed in relation to the appropriate objectives and hypotheses as suggested by the qualitative data.

7.8.1 Objective 5: H6

Heritage custodianship could also be relevant in influencing the *communitas* - affective commitment relationship. The *posteriori* theme of heritage custodianship, could manifest practically as activities that facilitate a greater cohesiveness amongst volunteers, and

subsequently enhanced affective commitment towards the voluntary organisation. This is supported by the qualitative empirical data, for example, respondents noted the importance of protecting the Scouts unique heritage (see section 6.8). These comments support the notion that the Scouts brand heritage is understood to be a valuable resource, and positively affects volunteers' commitment to the organisation. The suggestion that heritage custodianship activities (e.g., curating and researching the Scouts heritage for a museum) enhance *communitas* gains stronger traction given the intensity of emotion and attachment to the organisation's heritage. Practical suggestions regarding heritage custodianship in the Scouts included creating a dedicated collection of Scouting related artefacts in Scotland and presenting them informatively to volunteers, as well as maintaining the 'in use' elements of Scouting's heritage such as traditional uniforms, titles, and traditional camping techniques (see section 6.8). Thus, the physical manifestations of the Scouts heritage (e.g., the traditional patrol tents used, uniforms, and campfire techniques) can be seen to contribute to facilitating environments conducive to *communitas*, which thrives when traditional social structures, and presumably indicators of social structure (e.g., brand clothes instead of uniform, various tent types) are deconstructed (Di Giovine 2011; Turner 1964). Although further research is required to fully support these intimations, management should be aware of the potential capacity for heritage custodianship and preservation to enhance *communitas* experiences and, subsequently, volunteer affective commitment to the Scouts.

7.8.2 Objective 5: H13

Heritage custodianship, which emerged as a salient concept in the management of the Scouts, and for the first time in a voluntary organisation, could also influence the mediatory role performed by *communitas*, between brand heritage and volunteer work engagement and, therefore, contributes to meeting Objective 5. Heritage custodianship's potential to inspire closer, deeper connections between individuals and the Scouts brand heritage (Burghausen and Balmer 2015), and its potential to manifest as activities are likely to be conducive to stimulating *communitas* (Di Giovine 2011; Wallace 2006). In this sense, volunteers may assume a participatory and co-creational role in heritage custodianship, representing a significant departure from the current, limited

understanding of the concept which is limited to a private sector context (Burghausen and Balmer 2015). Heritage custodianship's capacity to benefit the Scout organisation is supported through comments in the qualitative data regarding the value of establishing a curated space to convey the heritage of the Scouts, suggesting such communally oriented heritage custodianship could contribute to instilling camaraderie amongst the volunteer cohort (see section 6.8). This notion correlates broadly to understanding of the co-creative and engagement enhancing capacities of well curated museum spaces (Taheri et al. 2014a). Further research exploring the manifestations of, and benefits accruable to, heritage custodianship in the non-profit sector should be undertaken to develop understanding in this area.

7.8.3 Objective 5 H11

Given brand heritage can often manifest as ceremony within the Scouts, and many of the organisation's ceremonies can be understood as a part of its long heritage (Scout Association 2006) implications arose from the research regarding heritage custodianship, which emerged from the qualitative interviews *posteriori* (see section 6.8). In this research, heritage custodianship relates to the management and cultivation of the Scouts heritage, and the processes safeguarding and preserving such heritage for the future.

Heritage custodianship holds obvious relevance to brand heritage (which utilises a genuine organisational heritage where possible (Burghausen and Balmer 2015; Urde et al. 2007; Wiedmann et al. 2011a), which intimates support for the empirically shown moderation of brand heritage effect on affective commitment by *communitas*. For example, the importance of carefully considering any changes to Scouting practices that might alter its heritage was emphasised by a respondent, with particular reference to the Jamborette camp which was noted in the data to be essential, and of significant value to Scouting in Scotland (see section 6.8). When in possession of a rich brand heritage, volunteer organisation managers could unintentionally evoke powerful negative reactions from volunteers who envisage possessing a personal intimate relationship between themselves and the organisation, underpinned by shared heritage and history if changes to the brand are made (Hankinson and Lomax 2006). In this sense, this research highlights that volunteer organisation heritage custodianship should first involve careful

consideration of potential effects of changes made by management that could impact upon the perceptions and interpretations of its heritage. Furthermore, the influence of *communitas* as a moderator between brand heritage and affective commitment chimes with one respondent's comments regarding potential heritage custodianship practices within the Scouts (see section 6.8). The respondent's suggestion of archiving and showcasing the Scouts heritage and history through curation and exhibition of artefacts and displays raises two welcome implications. First, through establishing strong connections with the Scouts' past and its volunteers, an intimacy could be generated which could elicit stronger levels of affective commitment throughout the volunteer cohort. Secondly, diligent custodianship of the Scouts heritage today can help safeguard and develop the organisation heritage resource in the future.

7.9 Presentation of Revised Theoretical Model

Anchored on the VPM, Figure 4 represented the theoretical model as it was derived from the literature. The model was subsequently validated by the quantitative element of the thesis, and explored using a PLS-SEM analysis approach (See chapter 5). The qualitative element of the research supported the quantitatively validated model (See Figure 15) but revealed an additional factor that arose from the data; heritage custodianship. The identification of an additional heritage custodianship component therefore mandates the presentation of a revised theoretical model shown in Figure 16 to incorporate this additional finding:

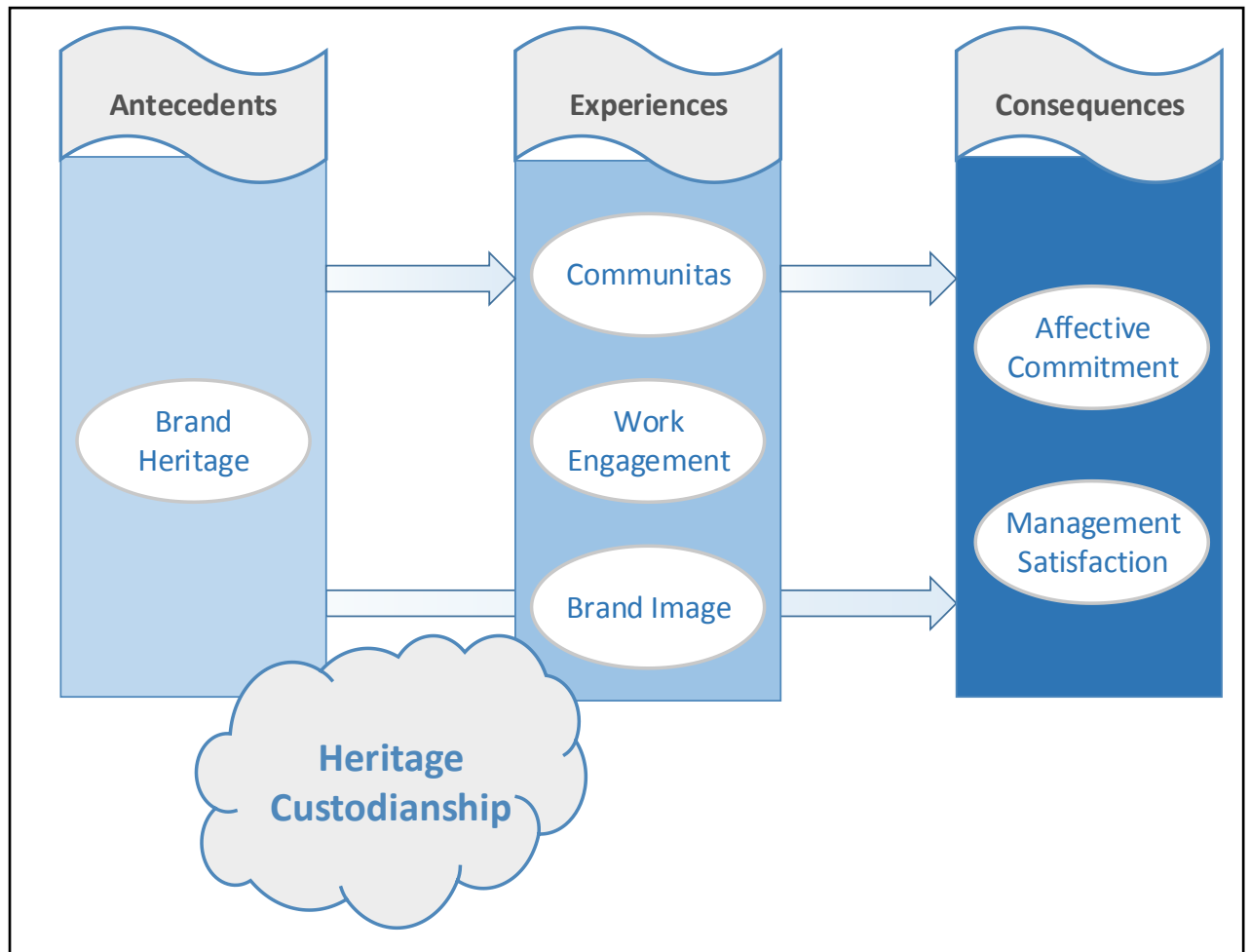


Figure 16: Revised Theoretical Model

7.10 Summary of Chapter

Against the backdrop of increasing challenges for non-profit sector organisations, and a growing competitiveness within the sector, this chapter contributes to advancing understanding of brand heritage and its usefulness to voluntary organisations and offers additional support for the newly presented theoretical model. The preceding discussion highlights brand heritage's salience to the non-profit sector (in particular voluntary organisations), and identifies its important role in relation to communitas, brand image, volunteer work engagement, affective commitment, and satisfaction with management, building on earlier empirical studies showing increased volunteer engagement to be conducive to sustaining volunteer activity (Vecina et al. 2012), and relating the results of this research to broader theoretical understanding as conveyed in the academic literature.

As well as the hypothesised direct relationships identified in the literature review (H1,H2,H3,H4,H5,H6,H7,H8,H9, and H10) this discussion also contributed to research by identifying three moderating effects between the theoretical model's constructs (H11,H12,H13) (see section 5.6.6), ultimately building on understanding of brand heritage, *communitas*, brand image, volunteer work engagement, affective commitment, and satisfaction with management (McGinnis et al. 2008; Meyer et al. 2002; Michel and Rieunier 2012; Schaufeli et al. 2002; Vecina et al. 2012; Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Furthermore, the discussion considered the emergent *posteriori* concept of heritage custodianship which, despite sharing some conceptual similarity with the tentatively investigated corporate heritage stewardship (Burghausen and Balmer 2015), is argued to be distinct and more co-creational in nature (see section 6.8 and 7.8). The next section presents the conclusions of the research project, and articulates the implications of the investigation for volunteer managers. Contributions to the research community are then offered, these include highlighting areas identified as requiring additional future research.

Chapter 8 Conclusions

8.1 Introduction

This chapter concludes the research project. First it articulates the extent to which it has addressed the research objectives presented in chapter one. Next, the methodological and theoretical contributions of the research are considered before the implications for volunteer managers are offered. This is followed by an assessment of the limitations of the research project and identification of avenues for future research. Finally, a brief reflection on the researcher's experiences is made.

8.2 Reviewing the aim and objectives

As its primary aim, this research sought to develop a new theoretical model of the volunteering process to enhance volunteer management practice.

Specifically, it investigates the influence of brand heritage on *communitas*, brand image, work engagement, affective commitment and satisfaction in relation to volunteer management.

This aim was met through the development, and subsequently successful testing of the model presented in

Figure 16. Contributing to successfully meeting this aim, the extent to which the research objectives were met is explained in the following sections.

8.2.1 Objective 1: Underpinned by the volunteer process model, identify antecedents, experiences, and consequences of volunteering in the context of Scouting in Scotland.

In contrast to the private sector, the non-profit sector has historically attracted a much lower level of research focus (evidenced by only three sector dedicated journals in the ABS list). Underpinned by the VPM which suggests the volunteering phenomenon is composed of inter-related yet distinct antecedents, experiences, and outcomes (Hyde et al. 2016; Omoto and Snyder 1990), both the quantitative and qualitative elements of the research identified theoretical constructs active in these three stages which are now summarised.

Regarding the antecedent stage of the VPM, previous study of brand heritage had generally considered it to be a private sector concept (Rose et al. 2016; Schultz 2001;

Wiedmann et al. 2011a), and it had received only tacit, non-empirical consideration in relation to volunteers (Mort et al. 2007). This research found brand heritage to constitute an antecedent stage construct (see section 5.4), meaning it contributes to volunteers' experiences and subsequent outcomes. This finding complemented brand heritage research in the private sector which suggests brand heritage can contribute to customer purchase decisions and resultant satisfaction (Mort et al. 2007; Wiedmann et al. 2011a).

At the experience stage, *communitas*, brand image, and volunteer work engagement were identified as being relevant to volunteers. *Communitas* had previously received very limited qualitative research attention within volunteer related research (Wallace 2006), although its role in experiential consumption has been well-established (McGinnis et al. 2008; 2012; Taheri et al. 2016). The identification of *communitas* as an important experience stage construct that can influence VPM outcomes echoes broadly the suggestions made by prior *communitas* research, but establishes more firmly its role in relation to volunteers (see section 3.7).

Brand image was also identified as performing a role at the experience stage of the VPM. Brand image is optimised when its external and internal elements are congruent and complimentary (Rich et al. 2010). Consequently, the experiences of volunteers in the Scouts allowed them to assess the overall brand image of the organisation, which was in part affected by their experience of brand heritage and *communitas*. The identification of brand image at the experience stage of the VPM speaks to an underdeveloped understanding of how brand image affects employees in private sector settings (Rich et al. 2010), and builds on limited understanding of non-profit brand image (Michaelidou et al. 2015; Michel and Rieunier 2012; Randle et al. 2013).

Finally, volunteer work engagement was found to be positioned at the experience stage of the VPM. Volunteer work engagement comprises of vigour, absorption and dedication (Schaufeli et al. 2002; Vecina et al. 2012). Thus, experiences high in vigour, absorption and dedication by volunteers were noted to affect the consequences of volunteering. These findings chimed with prior volunteer-oriented research which had identified engagement as a pertinent concept, and noted the importance of maximising volunteer engagement as far as possible (Harp et al. 2016; Shantz et al. 2014; Vecina et al. 2012 2013). Additionally, engagement research housed in the private sector has emphasised

the role of high-level engagement experiences upon avoiding psychological burnout, and on employee retention (Cole et al. 2012; Salanova et al. 2005).

In relation to the consequence stage of the VPM, both affective commitment, and volunteer satisfaction with management were identified in this research. Affective commitment can be viewed as an assessment of the emotional psychological connection held between an individual and an organisation, and has been considered as an outcome in previous volunteering oriented, and private sector focused research (Chacón 2007; Chênevert et al. 2015; Johnson and Grayson 2005; Meyer et al. 2002; Stride and Higgs 2013). Thus, identification of affective commitment as an outcome stage construct contributes to and complements previous research regarding the construct.

Volunteer satisfaction with management was found to be an outcome stage consequence of volunteer experiences. High levels of volunteer satisfaction with management (which represents an assessment of a volunteer's opinion of their managers) have been suggested to influence retention of volunteers (Vecina et al. 2009; 2012). Furthermore, satisfaction with management has been investigated in private sector oriented research as an outcome of employee experiences (Grossman 1999; Lee 2016).

Finally, the qualitative element of this research found evidence that the newly identified theme of heritage custodianship also constituted an experience stage factor. Heritage custodianship was not previously identified in the literature, but emerged from the qualitative data *posteriori* (see section 6.8). Consequently, this research met Objective 1.

8.2.2 Objective 2: To explore how antecedents of volunteering contribute to volunteer experiences in the context of Scouting.

Objective 2 was met through assessing the relationships between the antecedent stage brand heritage, and the experience stage constructs of *communitas*, brand image, and volunteer work engagement.

Brand heritage was found to have a positive relationship with *communitas*, suggesting that brand heritage has the capacity to enhance *communitas*-rich experiences amongst volunteers. This relationship had not been previously established, although the literature does suggest the nature of volunteering as a phenomenon could render it particularly appropriate for *communitas* (Turner 1964). Furthermore, brand heritage's ability to convey an organisation's story (Ardelet et al. 2015), and promote trust and reassurance

amongst individuals (Schultz 2001; Wiedmann et al. 2011a) can act as a foundation for the close bonding and near-sacredness of *communitas* experiences (Di Giovine 2011; McGinnis et al. 2008; Wiedmann et al. 2011a). The qualitative element of this research suggested the importance of manifestations of brand heritage (e.g., the traditional camping practices and uniforms) in the Scouts, and suggesting these manifestations could contribute to facilitating *communitas* experiences amongst volunteers.

Building on the prior understanding in the literature (Wiedmann et al. 2011a), brand heritage was also shown to have a positive relationship with brand image, suggesting that organisations with a strong brand heritage can more effectively ensure they have a strong brand image, comprised of perceptions of usefulness, efficiency, affect and dynamism (Bennett and Gabriel 2003). As brand image is most potent in situations where there is congruence between the internal, and external brand images (Kylander and Stone 2012; Rich et al. 2010), brand image can perform a significant role during the experience stage of the VPM. Thus, this research found brand heritage to have a positive effect on brand image.

Finally, the relationship between brand heritage and volunteer work engagement was established for the first time. Although previous research has overlooked the role of brand heritage, the findings from this research speak to broader discussion in the literature, and build on previous understanding of approaches for increasing volunteer work engagement (Vecina et al. 2012). As brand heritage had been shown to deepen satisfaction amongst consumers in the private sector (Wiedmann et al. 2011a), this research contributes by advancing this rationale in relation to improving the application of volunteers in their roles as opposed to enhancing satisfaction of product consumption.

Additionally, brand heritage was found to have an indirect effect upon volunteer work engagement, moderated by *communitas*, highlighting the strength of both constructs in deepening volunteer work engagement (Di Giovine 2011; Sharpe 2005; Wiedmann et al. 2011a). Previous investigation into brand heritage had not considered its relationship with *communitas*, nor has the moderating role *communitas* plays in this relationship been highlighted before this study.

8.2.3 Objective 3: To explore how antecedents of volunteering impact on the consequences of volunteering with the Scouts

Meeting Objective 3 required exploring how the identified antecedents of volunteering influence the consequence stage volunteering constructs identified in the VPM, building on knowledge of direct antecedent - consequence effects (Hyde et al. 2016; Omoto and Snyder 1990). Thus, this research identified and demonstrated brand heritage (as an antecedent stage construct) to have influence on the consequence stage volunteering constructs of affective commitment and volunteer satisfaction with management. Although the findings from this research contribute to an under-researched area of the non-profit literature, they speak to intimations from private sector brand heritage research which suggest positive outcomes for organisations that utilise brand heritage appropriately (Balmer 2011b; Hudson 2011; Schultz 2001)

Affective commitment has been considered an important indicator in volunteer management as well as in previous studies as an aid to recruitment and retention of volunteers (Chênevert et al. 2015; Rhoades et al. 2001). Thus, developing insight into maximising volunteer affective commitment represents a useful contribution to the literature. This research established the brand heritage – affective commitment relationship for the first time, building on understanding of brand heritage's ability to evoke feelings of continuity, safety and familiarity amongst volunteers, as well as values and standards individuals are inclined to associate with (Wiedmann et al. 2011a), and linking it to enhancing the affective commitment they hold towards a voluntary organisation.

Volunteer satisfaction with management has previously been assessed as an indicator of the likelihood of volunteers continuing their service, and a measure of the effectiveness of volunteer management (Vecina et al. 2012). Indeed, the literature suggests individuals are more likely to continue in a role where they are satisfied with the way in which they are managed (Lee 2016; Vecina et al. 2009; 2012). Consequently, this research identified brand heritage as having a positive relationship with volunteer satisfaction with management, indicating voluntary organisations imbued with a rich heritage and who incorporate heritage into their operations could utilise such a resource to enhance volunteer management satisfaction. Positioned within the broader literature, enhanced

satisfaction with management has been suggested to contribute positively to duration of service amongst volunteers (Vecina et al. 2012), thus emphasising the importance of brand heritage to resource-constrained volunteer managers.

Three additional relationships between the antecedents and consequences of volunteering were also identified that contributed to meeting Objective 3. Brand heritage was found to have an indirect relationship with affective commitment that is moderated by *communitas*. *Communitas*' ability to influence affective commitment amongst volunteers has not been previously considered, although this finding speaks on an abstract level to the moderating role Taheri et al (2016) found *communitas* could perform amongst experiential consumers. An additional indirect relationship between brand heritage and the consequence stage, volunteer satisfaction with management, was also found to be moderated by *communitas*. Again, this represents a development to the wider literature as *communitas*' relationship with satisfaction with management had not previously been established.

8.2.4 Objective 4: To deepen understanding of volunteer experiences

Promoting rewarding and positive volunteer experiences can benefit the management of volunteer recruitment and retention (Musick and Wilson 2008; Wilson 2012). Therefore, enhancing understanding of the influencing factors affecting such experiences is important. This research met Objective 4 through establishing relationships between three volunteer experience stage constructs: *communitas*, brand image, and volunteer work engagement.

In meeting Objective 4, *communitas* was found to have a positive relationship with volunteer perceptions of the Scouts brand image. This finding contributes to prior understanding of the importance for congruence and complementarity between the externally projected and internally experienced brand image in an organisation (Kylander and Stone, 2012). For example, non-profit organisations that promise experiences rich in *communitas* can enhance their volunteers' perceptions of that organisation through delivering, or exceeding such promises. Thus, aspects of Scout camp design, and the intense social bonding resulting from Scout volunteering that takes place in liminal and liminoid space can deliver on volunteer expectations and contribute to enhancing their perceptions of brand image. This research contributed to academic understanding in this

area, as *communitas* had not (with one tacit exception) been considered in relation to NPOs and volunteers.

Understanding of the experience stage of volunteering was further developed in this research which found brand image to have a positive relationship with volunteer work engagement. This finding is intimated in the literature, despite receiving only limited empirical research in relation to volunteers (Kylander and Stone 2012; Michel and Rieunier 2012; Rich et al. 2010). Consequently, this research contributes by highlighting the importance of brand image and its effect upon current volunteers (e.g., its ability to deepen engagement), as well enhancing understanding of its role in the broader non-profit literature.

8.2.5 Objective 5: To evaluate the influence of volunteer experiences upon the consequences of volunteering with the Scouts

In meeting Objective 5, this research empirically established relationships between identified experience (*communitas*, brand image and volunteer work engagement) and consequence stage (affective commitment and volunteer satisfaction with management) theoretical constructs.

This study established a relationship between *communitas* and affective commitment, linking the *communitas* construct to affective commitment for the first time and building on current *communitas* understanding. This finding is supported by evidence in the literature that *communitas* can create deep emotional connections between individuals, and the experiences associated with the *communitas* experience (Arnould and Price 1993; Celsi et al. 1993; McGinnis et al. 2012). Thus, through experience of *communitas*, volunteers were shown to become more emotionally committed to an organisation.

Additionally, *communitas* was found to have a direct relationship with volunteer satisfaction with management, representing an original contribution to academic understanding as previous consideration of interplay between these constructs had been overlooked. This finding does speak in a broad sense to suggestions in the literature highlighting the positive effect *communitas* can have upon how individuals feel about their management (Arnould and Price 1993), perhaps in part attributable to the camaraderie and social bonding resulting from *communitas* experiences contributing to a greater closeness with management.

Volunteer work engagement was also found to be positively related to affective commitment, thus building on prior understanding of these theoretical constructs. Previous engagement investigation attests to the positive relationship between engagement of volunteers and volunteer commitment (Vecina et al. 2012), this study developed these findings further within a new volunteering context.

Finally, this study contributed to prior research showing volunteer work engagement has a positive relationship with satisfaction with management (Vecina et al. 2012) serving to reinforce the importance of engagement in voluntary settings, and its ability to yield positive outcomes such as elevated satisfaction with management.

8.3 Contributions to Knowledge

A fundamental requirement of a PhD thesis is its contribution to knowledge. This study makes a four-fold contribution to knowledge in the areas of theory, context, method, and management practice. The contributions made to these areas are now presented.

8.3.1 Theoretical Contributions

This thesis contributes to theory in five ways. It offers a new theoretical model, which enhances volunteer management practice (see

Figure 16), and is a particularly useful contribution given the growing financial pressures faced by managers of volunteers. The research developed understanding of the volunteer process model by using it to underpin the development of the new theoretical model. Although some previous consideration of approaches to enhancing volunteer engagement, affective commitment and satisfaction with management had been made (Vecina et al. 2012), there was little prior understanding of the role of brand heritage in relation to volunteers or, indeed, the contributions of and interplay between *communitas* and brand image in enhancing volunteer engagement, affective commitment, and satisfaction with management. The theoretical model developed in this research contributes to closing this knowledge gap, through the development of new theoretical insight.

Second, supported by empirical research involving Scout volunteers, this research suggests brand heritage, *communitas*, brand image, and volunteer engagement, are important in ensuring affective commitment and satisfaction in volunteers towards their host organisations. Driven by reflections on current and previous experiences of

volunteers, the results from this research indicate brand heritage can enhance positive feelings between volunteers and their managing organisations, thus building on understanding of brand heritage in private sector contexts (Wiedmann et al. 2011a).

Third, by developing and testing a new theoretical model this research contributes to understanding of the interaction between brand heritage, *communitas*, brand image, volunteer work engagement, affective commitment, and satisfaction with management for the first time. Although previous research had considered brand heritage in relation to brand image, and satisfaction in a private-sector context (Wiedmann et al. 2011a), this study advances preceding research (Mort et al. 2007), demonstrating its importance to the management of volunteers and highlighting the importance of heritage custodianship in relation to brand heritage.

Fourth, this research contributes to theory through finding the effect brand heritage has on affective commitment and how volunteer satisfaction with management can be enhanced by *communitas*, brand image, and volunteer work engagement. The research also supported the four-factor conceptualisation of brand image (comprising of usefulness, efficiency, affect and dynamism), which some authors have called into question (Michaelidou et al. 2015; Michel and Rieunier 2012). Furthermore, the three-factor theoretical conceptualisation of volunteer work engagement (comprising of dedication, vigour, and absorption) was supported by this research, countering arguments questioning the components of work engagement (Cole et al. 2012; Shuck 2011; Vecina et al. 2012). This research supported previous research highlighting the positive relationship between volunteer work engagement and satisfaction with management reported by Vecina et al. (2012).

Finally, regarding brand heritage, this research found evidence that heritage custodianship (defined in this research as measures implemented by management to protect unique organisational heritage) can contribute positively to magnifying the effect of brand heritage, highlighting the need for organisations to not simply instil their heritage within their brand, but to involve volunteers in the protection and custodianship of such heritage, in effect co-creating additional brand heritage benefits.

8.3.2 Contextual Contributions

This research contributes to our understanding of the non-profit sector context in the following three ways. First, this study identified some of the prevailing challenges faced by the sector with regards to volunteer management such as increasing competition for resources (Hurrell et al., 2011; Maclean et al., 2013; NCVO, 2013), and the particular complexities involved in managing volunteers as opposed to paid employees (Struder 2016).

Second, it synthesised the relevant literature relating to the non-profit sector context, and contributed to debates regarding the acceptability of critically applying traditionally private sector management approaches to the non-profit sector (Tucker and Parker, 2013). This was evidenced by the data from the Scouts, which empirically supported the theoretical model.

Finally, with specific focus on the components of the theoretical model, Wiedmann et al's (2011a) conceptualization of brand heritage had not previously been investigated in the non-profit context and *communitas* had received only limited research attention (Wallace 2006). Consequently, using data from Scout volunteers, this study demonstrated the usefulness of these theoretical constructs, contributing to understanding of the complexities of management in the non-profit sector.

8.3.3 Methodological Contributions

This research makes four methodological contributions. First, through using a sequential mixed methods approach informed by pragmatism as a research philosophy, the thesis contributes to a limited body of mixed method research related to the non-profit sector and, as a consequence, contributes to advancing the case for more mixed methods research in this area. The use of a mixed method approach was subsequently vindicated through identification of the *posteriori* theme of heritage custodianship. Had alternative methodological approaches been used, the importance of heritage custodianship may have gone unnoticed.

Second, the quantitative survey operationalised measurement scales for use in the non-profit sector (with specific relation to the Scouts) for the first time, validating their application in a new, non-profit setting and presenting a new model of the role of brand

heritage on volunteers. Furthermore, by applying particular measurement scales the research reinforces arguments around their usefulness and future use. For example, brand heritage has seen the recent emergence of an alternative measurement scale by Hakkala et al. (2011) yet this research supports future use of the scale introduced by Wiedmann et al. (2011a).

Third, this research incorporated a formative measure (brand heritage) into the theoretical model. Formative measures differ from the more commonly used reflective measures as they assume the measure causes the construct, rather than being a reflection of it (Hair et al. 2014). Thus, through incorporating formative brand heritage, this research contributes to our understanding of formative measures and can encourage their future use in this field of study.

Finally, this research included two higher-order measurement models for both brand image, and volunteer work engagement. Neither construct had previously been assessed as higher-order models to the best of the researcher's knowledge; thus, such an approach has developed methodological understanding of the two constructs. Furthermore, higher-order conceptualisation can promote more clarity in the development of models using PLS, as the illustrated final model is condensed and more holistic. Additionally, other collinearity risks (arising from high levels of construct correlation) can be reduced through using higher-order models (Hair et al. 2014) rendering their use in this research a useful methodological contribution.

8.3.4 Managerial Implications

Brand heritage can be easily understood as the history, image, symbols and story an organisation tells about its origins, evolution, and values. This research highlights six implications useful to managers of volunteers. It contributes to informing their choices, particularly with regard to unlocking the power of brand heritage and realising the associated benefits for their organisations. The managerial implications resulting from this study are presented alongside recommended management action points in Table 59.

Managerial Implications	Explanation	Management Action Points
Brand heritage is relevant to established non-profit organisations.	Organisations imbued with a rich heritage possess an advantage over those that do not.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Promote an equal appreciation of this asset amongst management and trustees. Communicate the heritage of an organisation to volunteers through training.
Brand heritage is relevant for newer non-profit organisations.	Brand heritage can be developed and appropriated quickly, even where an organisation has a limited genuine heritage.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conduct a brand heritage audit to establish the extent of the current organisations heritage. Devote resources to developing a ‘story’ communicating the values and origins of the organisation, with reference to heritage-rich organisations, places, or people to support this.
Be aware how brand heritage manifests.	Brand heritage can be conveyed through an organisations’ uniforms, customs, stories and equipment.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Raise awareness in senior management of the dangers of altering mediums of brand heritage. Modernisation programmes should be widely consulted upon before being implemented. ‘Soft’ manifestations of brand heritage should be recorded for the future.
Implement heritage custodianship practices.	Heritage custodianship can enhance brand heritage perceptions, and foster communitas in an organisation, contributing positively to volunteer management.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Develop a heritage custodianship strategy for their organisation. This may include creating new roles and responsibilities for volunteers to achieve this. Display and communicate objects important to the story of the organisation, or by documenting stories that could contribute to brand heritage in the future.
Promote Communitas	Communitas was found to contribute positively to enhancing the engagement, affective commitment, and satisfaction with management of volunteers.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Change volunteer work layouts to promote interaction. Externally derived social structures should be rendered redundant in the non-profit organisation and not affect volunteer role and responsibility decisions. Embed communitas into the design of volunteer programmes, for example supporting team bonding activities through official ceremonies, team building, and emphasising team ethos.
Utilise brand image	Brand image is important to non-profit organisations as it contributes to optimising volunteer engagement.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Align external brand image with the internal realities experienced by volunteers. Clarify volunteer understanding of job role and associated expectations through internal training and communication (e.g. workshops, posters, job role guides). Inform marketing of the organisation with past volunteer experiences, emphasising their stories to convey current expectations of a particular role.

Table 59: Managerial Implications

Furthermore, this research also makes a broad contribution to informing attitudes of non-profit managers through informing comments made by former Scouts operations director Stephen Peck that likened bad volunteers to a cancer in an organisation. Consequently, rather than a cancer, this research suggests bad volunteers may, in fact, be volunteers disconnected from their host organisation's heritage, and an accompanying awareness that through their volunteering they are a part of a positive community of individuals who sacrifice time and effort to do good. Thus, this research appeals to volunteer managers to allocate appropriate time and attention to the role of brand heritage within their organisation, and to harness the full extent of the benefits it can offer to make a positive difference to beneficiaries, despite increasing macro-environmental challenges.

8.4 Limitations and Future Research

Throughout the research process, and upon reflection of its conclusion, eight areas of limitations and further research can be identified. It is important these limitations are clearly articulated, in order to inform any future research that may be undertaken in the area of this thesis. In addition to the limitations, this section also outlines areas of future research identified as a result of this study that could contribute positively to developing subsequent understanding.

First, the survey data was sourced from volunteers from only one voluntary organisation, where using multiple organisations might have contributed to further reducing self-selection bias enhancing the generalisability of the study unearthed (Podsakoff et al. 2003). Second, a cross-sectional approach was used for the data collection, where a longitudinal approach conducted additional issues of interest may have been. Third, the survey was carried out online only, thus requiring respondents to have internet access, and an appropriate level of IT skills, although a suitable sample was still achieved. Given these limitations, the study should not be considered to offer definitive proof of causal relationships but, instead, to constitute a development of understanding regarding the role of brand heritage on volunteers in the Scouts, but also as evidence of similar occurrences in other volunteer organisations. Consequently, further research applying this model in a different research setting could contribute to answering causality doubts, which are known to be particularly complex and contestable (Granger 1980).

Future research would also be advised to utilise a research design allowing for the separation and analysis of respondents through length of service to an organisation, to investigate whether brand heritage performs a similarly powerful role regardless of how long a volunteer has been committed to an organisation. In a similar vein, investigating the influence of brand heritage on prospective volunteers could generate valuable insights for marketing managers in non-profit organisations with the possibility to positively influence volunteer recruitment. This would be of particular interest as the literature suggests that perceptions of an organisation are, to some extent, dependent on their staff (Punjaisri and Wilson 2007), exploration of how volunteers affect the brand heritage, and brand image or an organisation would, therefore, be of interest.

Further, this study presents measurement scales that have been operationalised for the non-profit context. Although the scales included demonstrate high reliability and validity scores, further application of these in future research would contribute to supporting their use. Despite these limitations, this study does offer a strong contribution to conversations in the literature and advances, in particular, understanding of the role played by brand heritage on volunteers. Ultimately, the results of this thesis should act as a catalyst for future research in this area.

Furthermore, as heritage custodianship was noted as an additional influencing factor, from the complementary qualitative phase of the study, further research should focus specifically on investigation of it, including the development and test of a quantitative measurement scale that could facilitate subsequent study.

Additionally, given the significant differences in the nonprofit sector policy landscape across national borders, this study does not comment specifically on policy implications deriving from it. Rather, it invites future application of the brand heritage model presented in

Figure 16 in different policy contexts to generate additional policy insight.

Finally, investigation of the practical implications of the theoretical model derived from this research is encouraged. In this regard, an action research approach may be useful in understanding, and measuring its practical impact, which may stimulate further enhancement of the model.

8.5 Personal Reflections on the Research

Reflecting upon a particular process is conducive to continual improvement (Creswell 2009; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009); accordingly, it is important to reflect upon the PhD process as a whole to inform my future research practice, but also how I, as an individual might develop next. In spring of 2013, when submitting my research proposal, and nervously attending the subsequent Skype interview from my apartment in Miyajima Guchi, Japan, I realise now that I did not fully understand the scale of the PhD challenge. Nevertheless, having resigned my employment, moved half-way around the world, and embarked upon a long-distance relationship I was determined to make my PhD journey successful. I set myself a target not only to complete my PhD project, but also to develop my academic CV to enhance my subsequent job prospects in academia. With the support of my academic supervisors, I presented papers from various research projects at international academic conferences, including the Academy of Marketing conference in Bournemouth, and the Association for Research on Nonprofit Organisations, and Voluntary Associations in Chicago. Such engagement with the academic community served to stimulate my knowledge of various research approaches, the state of the art of the current literature, and also pushed me to develop my own network of academic contacts who share an interest in non-profits, and the management of volunteers. Additionally, with the support and guidance of academic colleagues, I was able to develop a modest portfolio of publications alongside the PhD project (see appendix 1); these helped me develop an in-depth awareness of the publication process, various methodological approaches and, in particular, to deal with the challenges of responding to reviewer critique.

Having spent over three years investigating volunteers, and approaches to enhancing their satisfaction, my admiration for the contribution so many make to society for no monetary reward has continued to grow. I now have a far greater understanding of the scale of such sacrifices, but also how any decline in current rates of volunteering would be to the significant detriment of society. Looking ahead, it is my aim to continue research into volunteer management and marketing approaches. In my role as a marketing lecturer, I will continue my attempts to broaden students' understanding of marketing beyond the

pursuit of profit, to include the potential to utilise our understanding of complex management and marketing systems for non-commercial social benefit.

8.6 Conclusion

This research sought to enlighten understanding of non-profit volunteer management by developing a new theoretical model that enhanced understanding relating to brand heritage and volunteers. Specifically, its influence on their *communitas* experiences, brand image, work engagement, affective commitment, and satisfaction with their management. In meeting this objective, the research first identified pertinent theoretical constructs and established their appropriate stage in the volunteer process model, before the relationship between the antecedent stage, and the experience stage was examined. This was followed by an exploration of how the antecedents of volunteering affect the ultimate consequences of volunteering, along with analysis of the interplay within the experience stage of the volunteer process model itself. Finally, evaluation of the effect the experience stage of the volunteering process model has upon the consequence stage of the model was conducted. By satisfying the study aim, this thesis established brand heritage - for the first time empirically - to contribute positively to volunteer experiences. Furthermore, the mixed-methods approach used allowed for the additional theme of heritage custodianship to emerge from the qualitative data, emphasising how it could contribute to the volunteer process. Finally, the research offers a newly developed theoretical model, anchored on brand heritage, and empirically validated, that volunteer managers can use to inform the design of volunteer experiences to strengthen volunteer satisfaction and affective commitment and, thus, reduce turnover rates, along with associated recruitment and training costs.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Related Research Activity and Outputs

Research Activity	Dissemination	Relationship to this study
Journal Article	Traveling for Umrah: Destination attributes, destination image, and post-travel intentions' With Gannon, M et al. <i>The Service Industries Journal</i> , 37(7-8), 448-465, 2017 [ABS 2/ABDC B].	This study explored experiential marketing of destinations in tourism in relation to acts of pilgrimage. Used a PLS-SEM approach to develop and test a new theoretical model derived from the literature.
Journal Article	Sustainability and the Authentic Experience: Harnessing brand heritage – A study from Japan. With, Taheri, B., Farrington, T., and O’Gorman, K. <i>Journal of Sustainable Tourism (Forthcoming)</i> 2017. [ABS 3/ABDC A].	Explores brand heritage and its contribution to the sustainability of visitor experiences in Japan. Also uses PLS to develop and test a theoretical model derived from the literature.
Journal Article	Corporate Social Responsibility: Reviewed, Rated, Revised. With, Farrington, T, Gori, K, O’Gorman, K, and Queenan, J. <i>International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management</i> 29(1), 30-47 [ABS 3/ABDC A]	This article reviews and critiques the development of CSR literature within the field of hospitality and tourism.
Journal Article	A Modern Day Panopticon: Using power and control theory to manage volunteer tourists in Bolivia. With, Thompson, J., O’Gorman, K, <i>Tourism Management Perspectives</i> . 22, 34-43. [ABDC B].	This article investigated effective volunteer management approaches, predominantly through semi-structured interviews and using a template analysis approach.
Journal Article	Nonprofit Brand Heritage: Its Ability to Influence Volunteer Retention, Engagement, and Satisfaction With, Taheri, MacIntosh and O’Gorman. <i>Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly</i> , 45(6), 1234-1257, [ABS 3/ABDC A]	This journal article explores the interplay between brand heritage, engagement, and satisfaction with management in a volunteering context. This article employs PLS and an exclusively quantitative methodology.
Journal Article	Visitors’ engagement and authenticity: Japanese heritage consumption With Bryce, D O’Gorman, K and Taheri, B. <i>Tourism Management</i> 46, 571- 581, 2015. [ABS 4/ABDC A]	Employs a quantitative research approach using PLS to validate a model drawn from the literature.
Journal Article	Pro Poor Tourism in a First World Urban Setting: Case study of Glasgow Govan With Butler, R and O’Gorman, K <i>International Journal of Tourism Research</i> . 15, 443-457, 2013. [ABS 2 / ABDC A]	This research used an entirely qualitative approach due to the sensitivity and consequent suitability in this context. Practical experience of qualitative approaches can better inform methodological decision making in subsequent research projects.
Conference Paper	In Search of Authenticity: The Case of Japanese Heritage With, Bryce, D., Taheri, B., and O’Gorman, K. <i>Heritage, Tourism and Hospitality, International Conference 2014</i> , Boğaziçi University, Istanbul, Turkey. 2014	Incorporates brand heritage and applies it to a new context. Employs a quantitative research approach using PLS to validate a model drawn from the literature.
Conference Paper	New horizon towards consumer-based model of authenticity: The case of Japanese Heritage. With, Bryce, D., Taheri, B., and. O’Gorman, K. 47th <i>Academy of Marketing Conference</i> ,	Further explores the concept of brand heritage, applying it to empirical study. Employs a quantitative research approach using PLS to validate a model

	Bournemouth University, Bournemouth, U.K. 2014	drawn from the literature.
Conference Paper	Community Spirit: The role of <i>communitas</i> in engaging volunteers. With Taheri, B., and O’Gorman, K. <i>Association for Research on Nonprofit Organisations and Voluntary Associations Conference</i> , Chicago, USA, 2015	This conference paper developed and tested a new theoretical model for voluntary organisation which included brand image, <i>communitas</i> , and volunteer work engagement. It used a quantitative methodology.
Conference Paper	Brand heritage and consumer-based model of authenticity in Japanese heritage sites. With, Farrington, T., Taheri, B., and O’Gorman, K. <i>Arts, Heritage, Nonprofit and Social Marketing (SIG)</i> , London, UK, 2015	Extended a consumer-based model of authenticity to include brand heritage, but tempered by Barthes’ writing on Japan. This paper applied a quantitative methodology.
Conference Submission	Plucky Amateurs: Constructing professionalism in organisations. With MacIntosh, R., O’Gorman, K., Farrington, T., Gordon, J. Abstract from <i>Workshop on Organisational and Institutional Change</i> , Edinburgh, UK, 2017.	Explores voluntary organisations, and the professional – amateur dynamics that manifest amongst volunteers within them.
Scouts Report	The State of Scottish Scouting (In a research assistant capacity). With O’Gorman, K.	This report draws on both qualitative and quantitative analysis of Scout Scotland data towards offering an informed evaluation of the organisations activities in Scotland.
Edited Book Chapter	Qualitative Research Methods. With Lochrie, S. and O’Gorman, K. (2014), In: O’Gorman K and Macintosh, R. (eds.), <i>Business Research Methods</i> .	Presents a range of qualitative research techniques relevant to business research. Practical experience of qualitative approaches can better inform methodological decision making in subsequent research projects
Edited Book Chapter	Qualitative Data Gathering Techniques, With Lochrie, S. and O’Gorman, K. (2015), In: O’Gorman, K. and MacIntosh, R. (eds.), <i>Research Methods for Business & Management</i> .	Outlines and offers a grounding in qualitative research approaches, including interviews, focus groups, and observations, some of which were applied in this study.
Edited Book Chapter	Business Organisations: The Internal Environment, With McFarlane, J. (2016), In: Arshed, N. McFarlane, J. and MacIntosh, R (eds.), <i>Enterprise and Its Business Environment</i> .	Offers an introduction to management and entrepreneurial theory and the context in which various types of organisations operated, including private, public, and third sector. It also outlines relevant research developments.
Edited Book Chapter	Profit, (2016), In: MacLaren, A. Farrington, T. and O’Gorman K. (eds.), <i>Marketing Perspectives. (Forthcoming)</i>	Discusses the importance, and development of non-profit marketing. Offers particular insight into branding in the non-profit sector and brand heritage.
Edited Book Chapter	Branding and Brand Communications, With Taheri, B. (2016), In: Bell, G and Taheri, B. (eds), <i>Marketing Communications. (Forthcoming)</i>	Explores the development and use of brands, through discussing brand image, brand strategies, and approaches to building brand equity.
Edited Book Chapter	Methods and Techniques for Qualitative Data Gathering With Ogharanduku, B., Jubb, D., Lochrie, S. and O’Gorman, K. (2016), In: O’Gorman K and Macintosh, R. (eds.), <i>Research Methods for Accounting and Finance. (Forthcoming)</i>	Offers a grounding in qualitative research approaches relevant to accounting and finance studies.

Appendix 2: Survey Cover Letter



Dear Scout volunteer,

The Scout movement has undoubtedly made a positive contribution to society in Scotland. From teaching young people valuable life skills, to fostering greater community cohesion, the benefits of the Scouts to society, I'm sure you'll agree, are vast. Essential to the movement are people like you, the Scout volunteers. Volunteers are the unsung heroes of the Scout movement, however not enough is understood about your experiences towards volunteering for this organisation, or how we can retain more of our volunteers. To ensure we can improve the volunteering experience for all, we request you complete the questionnaire available via the link. The questionnaire, developed in partnership with researchers at Heriot-Watt University, seeks to understand your motivations, experiences and intentions to continue volunteering with the Scouts, which may advance understanding of volunteering on a wider level.

Should you complete the questionnaire, you will be eligible to enter our **free prize draw** for your chance to win one of two £100 camping and outdoors vouchers of your choice.

Please only complete the questionnaire, if you are a **volunteer** with the Scouts. The questionnaire should take around 15 minutes and all responses will be anonymous, treated with absolute confidentiality and will be used only for the current study.

The questionnaire can be accessed via the link below:

https://qtrial2014.az1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_bHEK4aqQxeRHbPT

Thank you for your willingness to assist with this survey; your help is highly appreciated.

If you have any questions or comments, please email me at: rwc2@hw.ac.uk

Ross Curran

Researcher, Heriot-Watt University

Appendix 3: Phase 1 Questionnaire

Volunteering in the Scouts

This survey is intended to help us explore your experience in volunteering with the Scouts. All responses will be anonymous, treated with absolute confidentiality and will be used only for the current study.


Please answer each of the questions in order in you currently volunteer with the Scouts.

Q1 Please indicate (by circling the appropriate number on each scale) your level of agreement with the following statements about *the branding* of the Scouts.

Statement	Completely disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Completely agree	No opinion
1. The Scouts are very continuous.		1		2	3	4	5	6	7	0
2. The Scouts are related to images of success.		1		2	3	4	5	6	7	0
3. I am bonded to the Scouts.		1		2	3	4	5	6	7	0
4. The Scouts set the valuation standard for other organisations.		1		2	3	4	5	6	7	0
5. The experiences of the Scouts promote a certain way of living.		1		2	3	4	5	6	7	0
6. My familiarity with the Scouts is very high.		1		2	3	4	5	6	7	0
7. The Scouts have a strong cultural meaning.		1		2	3	4	5	6	7	0
8. The experiences of the Scouts are a part of national treasure.		1		2	3	4	5	6	7	0
9. I have an absolutely clear imagination of the Scouts.		1		2	3	4	5	6	7	0

10. The Scouts represent honesty and truthfulness.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
11. The Scouts are highly known in the society.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
12. The Scouts have a strong brand identity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
13. When someone praises the Scouts, to me, it is a personal compliment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
14. The Scouts are very unique compared to other brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
15. The Scouts have a very good reputation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

Q2 Please indicate (by circling the appropriate number on each scale) your level of agreement with the below statements regarding your *feelings* towards the Scout's brand.

Statement	Completely disagree								Completely agree	No opinion
1. The Scouts are indispensable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0		
2. The Scouts are useful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0		
3. The Scouts are civic minded.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0		
4. The Scouts are efficient.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0		
5. The Scouts are serious.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0		
6. The Scouts are well managed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0		
7. The Scouts provide an excellent service to beneficiaries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0		
8. The Scouts use assets wisely.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0		
9. The Scouts are friendly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0		
10. The Scouts are generous.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0		
11. The Scouts are warm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0		
12. The Scouts are engaging.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0		

13. The Scouts are modern.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
14. The Scouts are innovative.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

Q3 Please, indicate (by circling the appropriate number on each scale) your level of agreement with the below statements regarding your *feelings* when volunteering with the Scouts.


Statement	Completely disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Completely agree	No opinion
1. When I volunteer, I feel a sense of camaraderie.		1		2	3	4	5	6	7	0
2. When I volunteer, I feel a bond with my fellow volunteers that I could not experience away from volunteering.		1		2	3	4	5	6	7	0
3. When I volunteer, I feel a sense of belonging with other volunteers.		1		2	3	4	5	6	7	0
4. When I volunteer, I feel a sense of harmony with the other volunteers.		1		2	3	4	5	6	7	0
5. When I volunteer, I feel a sense of sharing with the people there.		1		2	3	4	5	6	7	0
6. Volunteering really allows me to get to know my fellow volunteers.		1		2	3	4	5	6	7	0

Q4. Please, indicate (by circling the appropriate number on each scale) your level of agreement with the below statements regarding your *feelings* while volunteering with the Scouts.


Statement	Not at all important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very important	No opinion
1. I am enthusiastic about my volunteer work.		1		2	3	4	5	6	7	0

2. My volunteer work inspires me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
3. I am proud of the volunteer work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
4. I am immersed in my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

Q5. Please, indicate (by circling the appropriate number on each scale) your level of agreement with the below statements regarding your *feelings* while volunteering with the Scouts.

Statement	Not at all important								Very important	No opinion
1. When volunteering, I feel strong and vigorous.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		0	
2. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to my volunteer work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		0	
3. At my volunteer work, I feel bursting with energy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		0	
4. I get carried away when I am working.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		0	
5. I feel happy when I am working intensely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		0	

Q6. Please, indicate (by circling the appropriate number on each scale) your level of agreement with the below statements regarding your *satisfaction with the management* of the Scouts.

Statement	Not at all important								Very important	No opinion
1. I am satisfied with the interest shown by the Scouts to adjust/fit my motivations, preferences, abilities and capacities with the available volunteer positions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		0	
2. I am satisfied with the training provided to improve volunteer work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		0	

3. I am satisfied with the fluidity and frequency of communications between volunteers and professionals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
4. I am satisfied with the current mechanisms to solve problems the volunteers might encounter when carrying out their tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
5. I am satisfied with the recognition of the role of volunteerism in the Scouts.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
6. I am satisfied with the friendly relations I have within the Scouts.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
7. I am satisfied with the way the Scouts manage volunteerism.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
8. I am satisfied with overall management of the Scouts.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

Q7. Please indicate (by circling the appropriate number on each scale) your level of agreement with the below statements regarding your feelings towards the *Scouts*.

Statement	Completely disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Completely agree	No opinion
1. I do not feel like “part of the family” at this voluntary organisation.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7		0
2. I would be very happy to spend many years in the Scouts if it were allowed.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7		0
3. I enjoy discussing the Scouts with people outside it.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7		0
4. I really feel as if the Scouts problems are my own.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7		0
5. If I were to relocate to another community, I think I could easily become as attached to		1	2	3	4	5	6	7		0

another voluntary organisation as I am to this one.										
6. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to the Scouts.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			0
7. The Scouts have a great deal of personal meaning to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			0
8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to the Scouts.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			0

Q8. Please indicate your age bracket.

- ☐ 18-25 ☐ 26-35 ☐ 36-45 ☐ 46-55 ☐ 56-64
☐ 65 and older

Q9. Please indicate your gender.

- ☐ Male ☐ Female ☐ Other

Q10. Please indicate your religious beliefs.

- ☐ Christian ☐ Muslim ☐ Hindu ☐ Jewish ☐ Atheist ☐ Agnostic ☐ Other ☐
 Rather not to say

Q11. Please indicate your highest level of educational qualification.

- ☐ Standard Grade/ O Levels/ School Leaving Certificate
☐ Scottish Higher/A- Levels/ College Diploma
☐ Ordinary Degree/Graduate Certificate
☐ Honours Degree/Graduate Diploma
☐ Master's Degree
☐ Doctorate
☐ None

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP

Appendix 4: Interview Guide

Interview Guide

Issue	Themes to cover
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Brand Heritage	<p>To what extent to think the Scouts possess a rich heritage? And if so, how do you see it manifest within the organisation?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ How do you feel it benefits the Scouts? ➤ How do you feel it the Scouts' heritage detracts from the organisation? ➤ Challenges? <p>How effectively do you think the benefits of the Scouts' brand heritage are managed? Do you feel managers 'make the most' of this heritage asset?</p>
Communitas	<p>To what extent do you feel a communitas spirit exists within the Scouts?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ How does this make you feel? ➤ How can this be enhanced by management? ➤ Do you feel brand heritage can help stimulate feelings of communitas?
Brand Image	<p>What are your general views of the Scouts brand image?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Do you feel brand image is important in attracting new volunteers to the Scouts? ➤ How effective is the Scouts brand image in ensuring its distinctiveness? ➤ Does the Scouts brand image make you want to continue volunteering with the Scouts?
Volunteer Work Engagement	<p>As a volunteer with the Scouts, do you feel absorbed, dedicated and vigorous in your attitudes towards your work with the organisation?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ What things make you particularly engage in your volunteer work? ➤ What things would negatively affect your level of volunteer work

	<p>engagement?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Does your level of engagement encourage you to continue volunteering with the Scouts?
Affective Commitment	<p>To what extent would you say you possess a strong affective bond towards the Scouts?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Do these feelings of affective commitment deepen, or lessen your determination to continue volunteering with the Scouts? ➤ Do you feel that Scouts brand heritage, its track record, longevity, and history increase or decrease your feelings of affective commitment?
Volunteer Satisfaction with Management	<p>How satisfied are you with the way you are managed at the Scouts?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ How could the management be improved? ➤ Are you satisfied with the way the brand heritage of the organisation is being managed? ➤ How could the Scouts be managed more effectively? What aspects of the organisations management could be improved?

Appendix 5: Descriptive Statistics for Brand Heritage

Descriptive Statistics									
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
1.2 The Scouts are very continuous.	1248	1	7	5.80	1.289	-.886	.069	.087	.138
1.3 The Scouts are related to images of success.	1248	1	7	5.69	1.312	-.956	.069	.550	.138
1.5 I am bonded to the Scouts.	1248	1	7	5.60	1.561	-1.066	.069	.414	.138
1.6 The Scouts set the valuation standard for other organisations.	1248	1	7	5.62	1.426	-.987	.069	.458	.138
1.6 The experiences of the Scouts promote a certain way of living.	1248	1	7	6.03	1.262	-1.621	.069	2.845	.138
1.7 My familiarity with the Scouts is very high.	1248	1	7	6.11	1.315	-1.639	.069	2.305	.138
1.8 The Scouts have a strong cultural meaning.	1248	1	7	5.94	1.281	-1.310	.069	1.509	.138
1.10The experiences of the Scouts are a part of national treasure.	1248	1	7	5.89	1.403	-1.307	.069	1.207	.138
1.11I have an absolutely clear imagination of the Scouts.	1248	1	7	5.61	1.470	-.953	.069	.325	.138
7.2 The Scouts represent honesty and truthfulness.	1248	1	7	6.29	1.076	-1.944	.069	4.509	.138
7.3 The Scouts are highly known in society.	1248	1	7	6.46	.959	-2.403	.069	7.301	.138
7.4 The Scouts have a strong brand identity.	1248	1	7	6.42	.984	-2.140	.069	5.197	.138
1.13 When someone praises the Scouts, to me, it is a personal compliment.	1248	1	7	5.68	1.643	-1.211	.069	.573	.138
1.14 The Scouts are very unique compared to other brands.	1248	1	7	5.81	1.432	-1.341	.069	1.389	.138
1.15 The Scouts have a very good	1248	1	7	6.36	.936	-1.977	.069	5.397	.138

reputation.									
Valid N (listwise)	1248								

Appendix 6: Descriptive Statistics for Brand Image

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
2.1 (Usefulness) The Scouts are indispensable.	1248	1	7	5.26	1.585	-.829	.069	.042	.138
2.2 (Usefulness) The Scouts are useful.	1248	1	7	6.20	1.011	-1.498	.069	2.703	.138
2.3 (Usefulness) The Scouts are civic minded.	1248	1	7	5.97	1.140	-1.254	.069	1.740	.138
2.4 (Efficiency) The Scouts are efficient.	1248	1	7	5.41	1.409	-.790	.069	.129	.138
2.5 (Efficiency) The Scouts are serious.	1248	1	7	5.23	1.458	-.691	.069	.034	.138
2.6 (Efficiency) The Scouts are well managed.	1248	1	7	5.39	1.432	-.827	.069	.283	.138
2.7 (Efficiency) The Scouts provide an excellent service to beneficiaries.	1248	1	7	5.69	1.329	-.915	.069	.353	.138
2.8 (Efficiency) The Scouts use assets wisely.	1248	1	7	4.98	1.481	-.549	.069	-.042	.138
2.9 (Affect) The Scouts are friendly.	1248	1	7	6.10	1.071	-1.490	.069	2.944	.138
2.10 (Affect) The Scouts are generous.	1248	1	7	5.83	1.205	-1.051	.069	.942	.138
2.11 (Affect) The Scouts are warm.	1248	1	7	5.92	1.183	-1.159	.069	1.263	.138
2.12 (Affect) The Scouts are engaging.	1248	1	7	5.95	1.150	-1.104	.069	1.120	.138
Brand	1248	1	7	5.72	1.247	-1.061	.069	1.150	.138
2.13 (Dynamism) The Scouts are modern.	1248	1	7	5.75	1.277	-1.084	.069	.995	.138
2.14 (Dynamism) The Scouts are innovative.	1248	1	7	5.75	1.277	-1.084	.069	.995	.138
Valid N (listwise)	1248								

Appendix 7: Descriptive Statistics for Komunitas

Descriptive Statistics									
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
3.1 When I volunteer, I feel a sense of	1248	1	7	5.73	1.299	-1.220	.069	1.701	.138

camaraderie.									
3.2 When I volunteer, I feel a bond with my fellow volunteers that I could not experience away from volunteering.	1248	1	7	5.17	1.681	-.883	.069	.077	.138
3.3 When I volunteer, I feel a sense of belonging with other volunteers.	1248	1	7	5.67	1.372	-1.305	.069	1.829	.138
3.4 When I volunteer, I feel a sense of harmony with the other volunteers.	1248	1	7	5.31	1.452	-.857	.069	.519	.138
3.5 When I volunteer, I feel a sense of sharing with the people there.	1248	1	7	5.68	1.310	-1.232	.069	1.615	.138
3.6 Volunteering really allows me to get to know my fellow volunteers.	1248	1	7	5.55	1.379	-.951	.069	.670	.138
Valid N (listwise)	1248								

Appendix 8: Descriptive Statics for Volunteer Work Engagement

Descriptive Statistics									
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
4.1 (Dedication) I am enthusiastic about my volunteer work.	1248	1	7	6.08	1.085	-1.386	.069	2.432	.138
4.2 (Dedication) My volunteer work inspires me.	1248	1	7	5.51	1.438	-.972	.069	.554	.138
4.3 (Dedication) I am proud of the volunteer work I do.	1248	1	7	6.28	1.055	-1.938	.069	4.656	.138
4.4 (Absorption) I am immersed in my work.	1248	1	7	5.76	1.326	-1.347	.069	1.984	.138
5.1 (Vigor) When volunteering, I feel strong and vigorous	1248	1	7	4.19	1.678	-.330	.069	-.540	.138
5.2 (Vigor) When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to my volunteer work.	1248	1	7	4.19	1.837	-.280	.069	-.823	.138

5.3 (Vigor) At my volunteer work, I feel bursting with energy.	1248	1	7	4.38	1.663	-.351	.069	-.477	.138
5.4 (Absorption) I get carried away when I am working.	1248	1	7	5.10	1.667	-.756	.069	-.187	.138
5.5 (Absorption) I feel happy when I am working intensely.		1	7	5.85	1.234	-1.211	0.69	1.487	.138
Valid N (listwise)	1248								

Appendix 9: Descriptive Statistics for Satisfaction with Management

Descriptive Statistics									
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
6.1 I am satisfied with the interest shown by the Scouts to adjust/fit my motivations, preferences, abilities and capacities with the available volunteer positions.	1248	1	7	4.80	1.534	-.501	.069	-.168	.138
6.2 I am satisfied with the training provided to improve my volunteer work.	1248	1	7	4.90	1.694	-.573	.069	-.535	.138
6.3 I am satisfied with the fluidity and frequency of communications between volunteers and professionals.	1248	1	7	4.45	1.694	-.297	.069	-.719	.138

6.4 I am satisfied with the current mechanisms to solve problems the volunteers might encounter when carrying out their tasks.	1248	1	7	4.52	1.699	-.387	.069	-.644	.138
6.5 I am satisfied with the recognition of the role of volunteerism in the Scouts.	1248	1	7	4.99	1.673	-.683	.069	-.303	.138
6.6 I am satisfied with the friendly relations I have within the Scouts.	1248	1	7	5.84	1.356	-1.410	.069	1.779	.138
6.7 I am satisfied with the way the Scouts manage volunteerism.	1248	1	7	5.01	1.642	-.744	.069	-.139	.138
6.8. I am satisfied with overall management of the Scouts.	1248	1	7	4.94	1.650	-.626	.069	-.364	.138
Valid N (listwise)	1248								

Appendix 10: Descriptive Statistics for Affective **Commitment**

Descriptive Statistics									
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
7. 1 (RS Affective) I do not feel like “part of the family” at this voluntary organisation.	1248	1	7	2.29	1.741	1.313	.069	.691	.138
7.2 (Affective) I would be very happy to spend many years in the Scouts if it were allowed.	1248	1	7	5.79	1.491	-1.279	.069	1.039	.138
7.3 (Affective) I enjoy discussing the Scouts	1248	1	7	5.61	1.485	-1.026	.069	.401	.138

with people outside it.									
7.4 (Affective) I really feel as if the Scouts problems are my own.	1248	1	7	4.00	1.940	-.044	.069	-1.103	.138
7.5 RS (Affective) If I were to relocate to another community, I think I could easily become as attached to another voluntary organisation as I am to this one.	1248	1	7	4.13	1.973	-.089	.069	-1.151	.138
7.6 (RS Affective) I do not feel “emotionally attached” to the Scouts.	1248	1	7	2.45	1.633	1.102	.069	.438	.138
7.7 (Affective) The Scouts have a great deal of personal meaning to me.	1248	1	7	5.56	1.577	-1.014	.069	.312	.138
7.8 RS (Affective) I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to the Scouts.	1248	1	7	2.29	1.720	1.352	.069	.786	.138
Valid N (listwise)	1248								

Appendix 11: Z-Scores for Kurtosis and Skewness of Brand Heritage

Descriptive Statistics						
Z-scores for all items	N	Mean	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
1.1 The Scouts are very continuous.	1248	.0000000	-.886	.069	.087	.138
1.2 The Scouts are related to images of success.	1248	.0000000	-.956	.069	.550	.138
1.3 I am bonded to the Scouts.	1248	.0000000	-1.066	.069	.414	.138
1.4 The Scouts set the valuation standard for other organisations.	1248	.0000000	-.987	.069	.458	.138
1.5 The experiences of the Scouts promote a certain way of living.	1248	.0000000	-1.621	.069	2.845	.138
1.6 My familiarity with the Scouts is very high.	1248	.0000000	-1.639	.069	2.305	.138
1.7 The Scouts have a strong cultural meaning.	1248	.0000000	-1.310	.069	1.509	.138
1.8 The experiences of the Scouts are a part of national treasure.	1248	.0000000	-1.307	.069	1.207	.138
1.9 I have an absolutely clear imagination of the Scouts.	1248	.0000000	-.953	.069	.325	.138
1.10 The Scouts represent honesty and truthfulness.	1248	.0000000	-1.944	.069	4.509	.138
1.11 The Scouts are highly known in society.	1248	.0000000	-2.403	.069	7.301	.138
1.12 The Scouts have a strong brand identity.	1248	.0000000	-2.140	.069	5.197	.138
1.13 When someone praises the Scouts, to me, it is a personal compliment.	1248	.0000000	-1.211	.069	.573	.138
1.14 The Scouts are very unique compared to other brands.	1248	.0000000	-1.341	.069	1.389	.138

1.15 The Scouts have a very good reputation.	1248	.0000000	-1.977	.069	5.397	.138
Valid N (listwise)	1248					

Appendix 12: Z-Scores for Kurtosis and Skewness of Communitas

Descriptive Statistics						
Z-scores for all items	N	Mean	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
3.1 When I volunteer, I feel a sense of camaraderie.	1248	.0000000	-1.220	.069	1.701	.138
3.2 When I volunteer, I feel a bond with my fellow volunteers that I could not experience away from volunteering.	1248	.0000000	-.883	.069	.077	.138
3.3 When I volunteer, I feel a sense of belonging with other volunteers.	1248	.0000000	-1.305	.069	1.829	.138
3.4 When I volunteer, I feel a sense of harmony with the other volunteers.	1248	.0000000	-.857	.069	.519	.138
3.5 When I volunteer, I feel a sense of sharing with the people there.	1248	.0000000	-1.232	.069	1.615	.138
3.6 Volunteering really allows me to get to know my fellow volunteers.	1248	.0000000	-.951	.069	.670	.138
Valid N (listwise)	1248					

Appendix 13: Z-Scores for Kurtosis and Skewness of Brand Image

Descriptive Statistics						
Z-scores for all items	N	Mean	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
2.1 (Usefulness) The Scouts are indispensable.	1248	.0000000	-.829	.069	.042	.138
2.2 (Usefulness) The Scouts are useful.	1248	.0000000	-1.498	.069	2.703	.138
2.3 (Usefulness) The Scouts are civic minded.	1248	.0000000	-1.254	.069	1.740	.138
2.4 (Efficiency) The Scouts are efficient.	1248	.0000000	-.790	.069	.129	.138
2.5 (Efficiency) The Scouts are serious.	1248	.0000000	-.691	.069	.034	.138
2.6 (Efficiency) The Scouts are well managed.	1248	.0000000	-.827	.069	.283	.138
2.7 (Efficiency) The Scouts provide an excellent service to beneficiaries.	1248	.0000000	-.915	.069	.353	.138
2.8 (Efficiency) The Scouts use assets wisely.	1248	.0000000	-.549	.069	-.042	.138
2.9 (Affect) The Scouts are friendly.	1248	.0000000	-1.490	.069	2.944	.138
2.10 (Affect) The Scouts are generous.	1248	.0000000	-1.051	.069	.942	.138

2.11 (Affect) The Scouts are warm.	1248	.0000000	-1.159	.069	1.263	.138
2.12 (Affect) The Scouts are engaging.	1248	.0000000	-1.104	.069	1.120	.138
2.13 (Dynamism) The Scouts are modern.	1248	.0000000	-1.061	.069	1.150	.138
2.14 (Dynamism) The Scouts are innovative.	1248	.0000000	-1.084	.069	.995	.138
Valid N (listwise)	1248					

Appendix 14: Z-Scores for Kurtosis and Skewness of Volunteer Work Engagement

Descriptive Statistics						
Z-scores for all items	N	Mean	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
4.1 (Dedication) I am enthusiastic about my volunteer work.	1248	.0000000	-1.386	.069	2.432	.138
4.2 (Dedication) My volunteer work inspires me.	1248	.0000000	-.972	.069	.554	.138
4.3 (Dedication) I am proud of the volunteer work I do.	1248	.0000000	-1.938	.069	4.656	.138
4.4 (Absorption) I am immersed in my work.	1248	.0000000	-1.347	.069	1.984	.138
5.1 (Vigor) When volunteering, I feel strong and vigorous.	1248	.0000000	-.330	.069	-.540	.138
5.2 (Vigor) When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to my volunteer work.	1248	.0000000	-.280	.069	-.823	.138
5.3 (Vigor) At my volunteer work, I feel bursting with energy.	1248	.0000000	-.351	.069	-.477	.138
5.5 (Absorption) I feel happy when I am working intensely.	1248	.0000000	-1.211	.069	1.487	.138
Valid N (listwise)	1248					

Appendix 15: Z-Scores for Kurtosis and Skewness of Satisfaction with Management

Descriptive Statistics						
Z-scores for all items	N	Mean	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
6.1 I am satisfied with the interest shown by the Scouts to adjust/fit my motivations, preferences, abilities and capacities with the available volunteer	1248	.0000000	-.501	.069	-.168	.138

positions.						
6.2 I am satisfied with the training provided to improve my volunteer work.	1248	.0000000	-.573	.069	-.535	.138
6.3 I am satisfied with the fluidity and frequency of communications between volunteers and professionals.	1248	.0000000	-.297	.069	-.719	.138
6.4 I am satisfied with the current mechanisms to solve problems the volunteers might encounter when carrying out their tasks.	1248	.0000000	-.387	.069	-.644	.138
6.5 I am satisfied with the recognition of the role of volunteerism in the Scouts.	1248	.0000000	-.683	.069	-.303	.138
6.6 I am satisfied with the friendly relations I have within the Scouts.	1248	.0000000	-1.410	.069	1.779	.138
6.7 I am satisfied with the way the Scouts manage volunteerism.	1248	.0000000	-.744	.069	-.139	.138
6.8 I am satisfied with overall management of the Scouts.	1248	.0000000	-.626	.069	-.364	.138
Valid N (listwise)	1248					

Appendix 16: Z-Scores for Kurtosis and Skewness of Affective Commitment

Descriptive Statistics						
Z-scores for all items	N	Mean	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
7.1 (RS Affective) I do not feel like “part of the family” at the Scouts.	1248	.0000000	1.313	.069	.691	.138
7.2 (Affective) I would be very happy to spend many years in the Scouts if it were allowed.	1248	.0000000	-1.279	.069	1.039	.138
7.3 (Affective) I enjoy discussing the Scouts with people outside it.	1248	.0000000	-1.026	.069	.401	.138
7.4 (Affective) I really feel as if the Scouts problems are my own.	1248	.0000000	-.044	.069	-1.103	.138

7.5 (RS Affective) If I were to relocate to another community, I think I could easily become as attached to another voluntary organisation as I am to this one.	1248	.0000000	-.089	.069	-1.151	.138
7.6 (RS Affective) I do not feel “emotionally attached” to the Scouts.	1248	.0000000	1.102	.069	.438	.138
7.7 (Affective) The Scouts have a great deal of personal meaning to me.	1248	.0000000	-1.014	.069	.312	.138
7.8 (RS Affective) I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to the Scouts.	1248	.0000000	1.352	.069	.786	.138
Valid N (listwise)	1248					

Appendix 17: Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Tests for all scale items

Tests of Normality						
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
1.1 The Scouts are very continuous.	.232	1248	.000	.833	1248	.000
1.2 The Scouts are related to images of success.	.211	1248	.000	.855	1248	.000
1.3 I am bonded to the Scouts.	.223	1248	.000	.828	1248	.000
1.4 The Scouts set the valuation standard for other organisations.	.218	1248	.000	.848	1248	.000
1.5 The experiences of the Scouts promote a certain way of living.	.265	1248	.000	.757	1248	.000
1.6 My familiarity with the Scouts is very high.	.322	1248	.000	.715	1248	.000
1.7 The Scouts have a strong cultural meaning.	.254	1248	.000	.793	1248	.000
1.8 The experiences of the Scouts are a part of national treasure.	.267	1248	.000	.780	1248	.000
1.9 I have an absolutely clear imagination of the Scouts.	.209	1248	.000	.843	1248	.000
1.10. The Scouts represent honesty and truthfulness.	.327	1248	.000	.692	1248	.000
1.11. The Scouts are highly known in society.	.382	1248	.000	.616	1248	.000
1.12 . The Scouts have a strong brand identity.	.371	1248	.000	.641	1248	.000
1.13 . When someone praises the Scouts, to me, it is a personal compliment.	.247	1248	.000	.789	1248	.000

1.14 . The Scouts are very unique compared to other brands.	.246	1248	.000	.796	1248	.000
1.15 . The Scouts have a very good reputation.	.327	1248	.000	.694	1248	.000
2.1. Scouts are indispensable.	.205	1248	.000	.884	1248	.000
2.2. The Scouts are useful.	.282	1248	.000	.760	1248	.000
2.3. The Scouts are civic minded.	.234	1248	.000	.813	1248	.000
2.4. The Scouts are efficient.	.209	1248	.000	.887	1248	.000
2.5. The Scouts are serious.	.188	1248	.000	.903	1248	.000
2.6. The Scouts are well managed.	.198	1248	.000	.887	1248	.000
2.7. The Scouts provide an excellent service to beneficiaries.	.221	1248	.000	.852	1248	.000
2.8. The Scouts use assets wisely.	.151	1248	.000	.919	1248	.000
2.9. The Scouts are friendly.	.248	1248	.000	.782	1248	.000
2.10 . The Scouts are generous.	.228	1248	.000	.840	1248	.000
2.11 . The Scouts are warm.	.235	1248	.000	.819	1248	.000
2.12 . The Scouts are engaging.	.232	1248	.000	.821	1248	.000
2.13 . The Scouts are modern.	.217	1248	.000	.852	1248	.000
2.14 . The Scouts are innovative.	.229	1248	.000	.844	1248	.000
3.1. When I volunteer, I feel a sense of camaraderie.	.221	1248	.000	.837	1248	.000
3.2. When I volunteer, I feel a bond with my fellow volunteers that I could not experience away from volunteering.	.200	1248	.000	.877	1248	.000
3.3. When I volunteer, I feel a sense of belonging with other volunteers.	.226	1248	.000	.831	1248	.000
3.4. When I volunteer, I feel a sense of harmony with the other volunteers.	.180	1248	.000	.889	1248	.000
3.5. When I volunteer, I feel a sense of sharing with the people there.	.240	1248	.000	.841	1248	.000
3.6. Volunteering really allows me to get to know my fellow volunteers.	.201	1248	.000	.868	1248	.000
4.1. I am enthusiastic about my volunteer work.	.253	1248	.000	.790	1248	.000
4.2. My volunteer work inspires me.	.212	1248	.000	.866	1248	.000
4.3. I am proud of the volunteer work I do.	.316	1248	.000	.702	1248	.000
4.4. I am immersed in my work.	.236	1248	.000	.821	1248	.000
5.1. When volunteering, I feel strong and vigorous.	.176	1248	.000	.932	1248	.000
5.2. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to my volunteer work.	.163	1248	.000	.924	1248	.000
5.3. At my volunteer work, I feel bursting with energy.	.163	1248	.000	.934	1248	.000
5.4. I get carried away when I am working.	.199	1248	.000	.891	1248	.000
5.5. I feel happy when I am working intensely	.228	1248	.000	.827	1248	.000
6.1. I am satisfied with the interest shown by the Scouts to adjust/fit my motivations, preferences, abilities and capacities with the available volunteer positions.	.156	1248	.000	.920	1248	.000

6.2. I am satisfied with the training provided to improve my volunteer work.	.184	1248	.000	.911	1248	.000
6.3. I am satisfied with the fluidity and frequency of communications between volunteers and professionals.	.133	1248	.000	.937	1248	.000
6.4. I am satisfied with the current mechanisms to solve problems the volunteers might encounter when carrying out their tasks.	.144	1248	.000	.931	1248	.000
6.5. I am satisfied with the recognition of the role of volunteerism in the Scouts.	.200	1248	.000	.900	1248	.000
6.6. I am satisfied with the friendly relations I have within the Scouts.	.262	1248	.000	.796	1248	.000
6.7. I am satisfied with the way the Scouts manage volunteerism.	.190	1248	.000	.899	1248	.000
6.8. I am satisfied with overall management of the Scouts.	.182	1248	.000	.910	1248	.000
7.1 I do not feel like “part of the family” at the Scouts.	.278	1248	.000	.750	1248	.000
7.2. I would be very happy to spend many years in the Scouts if it were allowed.	.250	1248	.000	.787	1248	.000
7.3. I enjoy discussing the Scouts with people outside it.	.225	1248	.000	.840	1248	.000
7.4. I really feel as if the Scouts problems are my own.	.120	1248	.000	.925	1248	.000
7.5. If I were to relocate to another community, I think I could easily become as attached to another voluntary organisation as I am to this one.	.124	1248	.000	.920	1248	.000
7.6. I do not feel “emotionally attached” to the Scouts.	.238	1248	.000	.822	1248	.000
7.7. The Scouts have a great deal of personal meaning to me.	.214	1248	.000	.834	1248	.000
7.8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to the Scouts.	.267	1248	.000	.754	1248	.000
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction						

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